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ABSTRACT

This monograph examines vocational education and training (VET) in the United Kingdom. Section 1 outlines the UK's political and administrative structure, population and employment, and economy. The following are among the aspects of the UK's VET system discussed in section 2: evolution of the system; organization of education and training (the education departments, higher education, schools and further education, government responsibility for VET, industrial sectors, localization, research, Northern Ireland, and responsible authorities); vocational qualifications (targets, the National Vocational Qualifications/Scottish Vocational Qualifications framework, accreditation, lead bodies, and awarding bodies); education and initial VET (secondary education, the Technical and Vocational Education Initiative, compacts, careers guidance, youth training, postschool education, training credits, and vocationally oriented higher education); and continuing VET (employment training, continuous professional development, enterprise training, open/flexible learning, in-company training, guidance for adults, and training for trainers). Section 3 explains regulatory and financial arrangements regarding VET, and section 4 analyzes the Europeanization of VET and trends in VET systems in the UK. Appended are a glossary and lists of acronyms/abbreviations, major organizations providing or regulating VET in the UK, and 11 publications. Thirty-six tables/figures are included. (MN)

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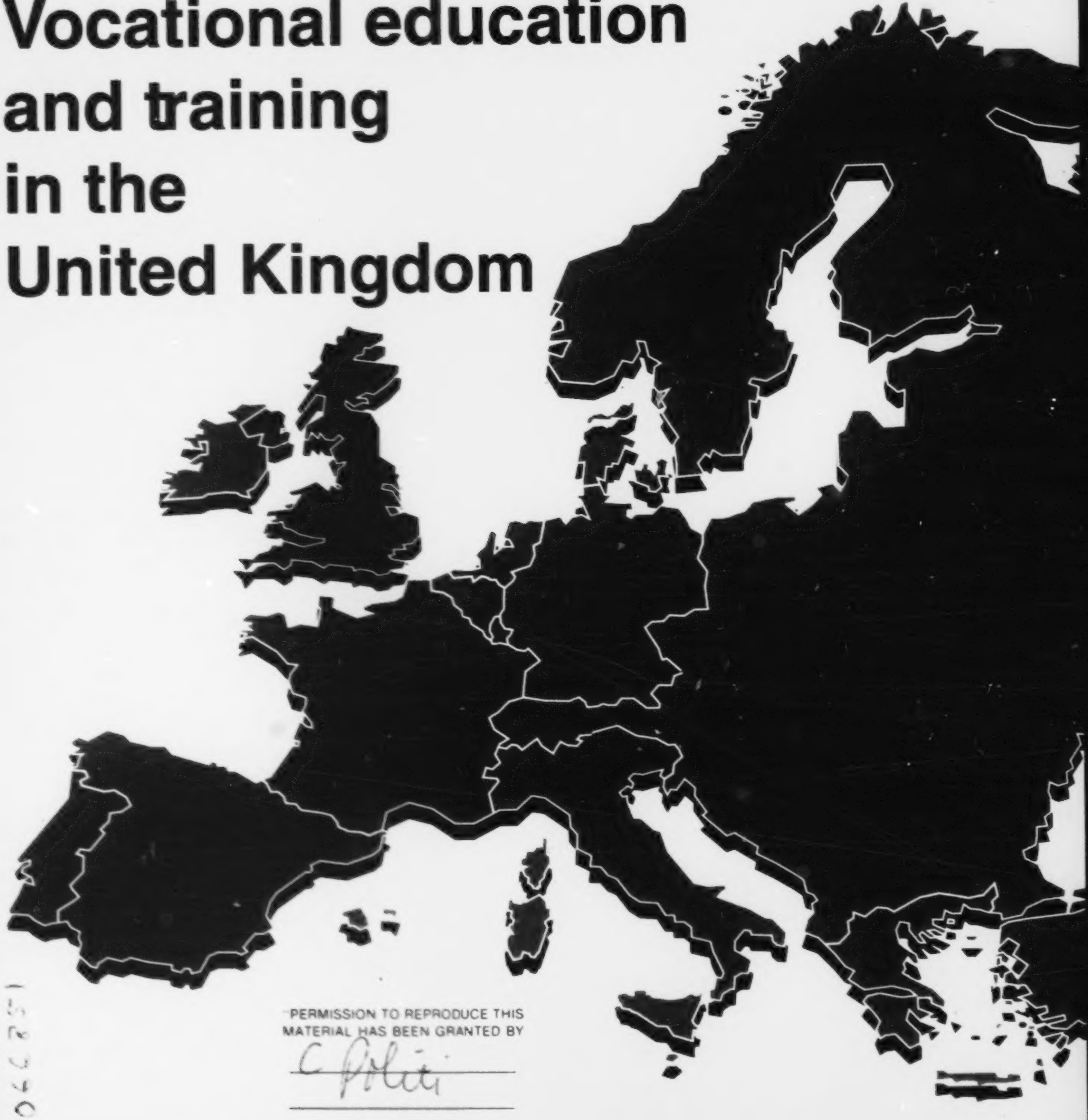
Vocational education and training in the United Kingdom



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Vocational Education and Training in the United Kingdom

This monograph has been prepared by

John Twining
Guildford Educational Services Ltd.

on behalf of
CEDEFOP - European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training, 1993

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Vocational education and training in the United Kingdom

CEDEFOP INTRODUCTION

IS THERE A SYSTEM?

Is there such a thing as a vocational training system? Strictly speaking the answer is "no", in that a system assumes a clear set of objectives and a logical and coherent framework for policy making and execution to achieve them. In reality, vocational training, sandwiched between the education system and the demands of the labour market, caught between the different and varying social, economic, and political priorities of political parties and the social partners, and in the conflicts between different ministries and public powers, located at national regional, and local level, does not in any of the Community Member States demonstrate the characteristics of a system.

Neverless, this volume and the eleven similar volumes on the other Member States constitute a third generation of CEDEFOP monographs on the training systems in the Member States. In preparing it, much has been learnt from the procedures used for and the reaction to, the earlier monographs and guide to the vocational training systems, published in 1983.

CONTENT OF THE REPORTS

The present monographs have been prepared by one organization or individual in each of the Member States, following a detailed specification by CEDEFOP of the contents required. These specifications were discussed and agreed at a meeting in Berlin in May 1991.

The basic structure was designed to incorporate

a) a presentation of the administrative, demographic, and economic background in which the training system exists;
b) a brief historical review of the development of the training systems;
c) a presentation of the arrangements for initial training;
d) a presentation of the arrangements for continuing training
e) an indication of where responsibilities for administering the system are located, including the influence of the social partners;
f) information on financing system;
g) an indication of present trends and developments, where authors were asked, in particular, to indicate how far the system has been, or would be, influenced by Community considerations such as the creation of the Single European Market, mutual recognition of qualifications, the intervention of the Structural Funds, and the Community's education and training programmes.

THE PROCESS OF PREPARATION

Authors were asked to send a copy of their draft report for comment to the members of CEDEFOP's Management Board in their country, and organizations with a major role in the training system. They were requested to incorporate the views expressed to the maximum extent possible. Whereas in general authors were asked to be descriptive and analytical they were encouraged in the last section (g above) to express their own views.

Initial draft monographs on each of the Member States were delivered to CEDEFOP in the period between September 1991 and March 1992. As experience had led us to expect, the documents received varied considerably in their approach, content, and presentation. Between January and October 1992 CEDEFOP had a series of intensive meetings with each of the authors, in order to ensure that certain elements were added to the reports and that they respected specific rules with relation to presentation. A novel and very benefical feature of these meetings was participation in many cases by the translators responsible for translating the volume concerned.

Following these meetings the authors revised their report on the basis of what was said during the meeting, took account of comments received, and included references to recent developments in their country.

USE OF DIAGRAMS

It had been hoped that a large number of diagrams could be developed which would be common to all the monographs, and could then be used to simplify comparision between the Member States by the reader. These could later become the basis of additional publications, such as a guide to the training systems or particular aspects of them. However, we found that while it is relatively easy to obtain and present statistical information on the population, the employment market, and the economy, it remains difficult not only to obtain hard and comparable data on many aspects of the education and training systems of all 12 Member States, but also to present this information in a useful diagrammatic form.

WHO ARE THE USERS?

A question which came up repeatedly in the preparation of the monographs was: what is our primary user group? Our belief is that these monographs will be useful to wide range of people active in vocational training, including policy makers, practitioners, and researchers, but also to those seeking training in another country, and needing to know the framework in which it is provided.They are therefore, in particular geared towards the needs of those who participate, or wish to participate in any of the Community programmes involving partnerships, visits, etc. Hence the emphasis on having monographs which do not require reference to further documents.

LINKS WITH OTHER COMMUNITY ACTIVITIES

CEDEFOP has been anxious that this work should be seen in the context of other Community activities with relation to information on the education and training systems. CEDEFOP has been glad to participate in the joint publication with EURYDICE on "Structures of the Education and Initial Training Systems in the Member States of the European Community" available in English, French and German. The European Unit of EURYDICE and CEDEFOP have also tried to ensure that the authors of the monographs on the training systems, and the EURYDICE units providing information for the national dossiers on the education systems, should be in contact with each other. The European Unit of EURYDICE and CEDEFOP similarly are continuing their efforts to ensure that the products of this work schould be available to a wide audience, and with this in mind are investigating possibilities of holding the information on a common automated system.

In a more general way, as indicated above, CEDEFOP considers these monographs should be useful in supporting other activities of the Community in the field of training, and through this the implementation of the new provisions, contained in articles 126 and 127 of the Maastricht Treaty.

The publication of these monographs does not mark the end of this activity. Arrangements will be made for their up-dating and their re-publication as appropriate and as resources permit. CEDEFOP would be extremely pleased to have comments on their usefulness and proposals on how they could be improved, from anybody who has occasion to use them.

Corrado Politi Deputy Director	J. Michael Adams	F. Alan Clarke

Berlin, November 1992

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AUTHOR'S PREFACE

This monograph in the CEDEFOP series on vocational education and training in the Member States of the European Community was drafted in the late summer of 1991, and circulated for comment to a number of bodies. The comments were received in the late autumn, and the draft and the comments were discussed with CEDEFOP in early 1992, followed by fairly heavy revisions. While this process of drafting, comment, discussion and revision was taking place, vocational education and training in the UK did not stand still. The monograph is written largely from the vantage point of late 1991, but with some updating into early 1992.

For the first draft I drew on many sources, but two need particular mention. For the history of vocational education and training until about 1980, I used (with a few additions and amendments) the version which had appeared in the previous CEDEFOP publication Vocational Training Systems in the Member States of the European Community. This in turn had been very closely based on *'The Evolution of British Manpower Policy'* by P.J.C. Perry. I largely agreed with the emphasis and, as far as I know, there has been no scholarly revisionism of this history. For the description of the responsibilities of the education departments, and of the systems of secondary education, I drew from the EURYDICE dossier prepared by the National Foundation for Educational Research. In summer 1991 there was a suggestion that the EURYDICE dossiers and the CEDEFOP monographs might be linked in some way. My own experience in using the excellent material from NFER showed that the sensible aims of the two publications were too far apart for it to be possible to use much of the same material. Nevertheless I must acknowledge the help which the NFER dossier gave me in structuring the passages about school education.

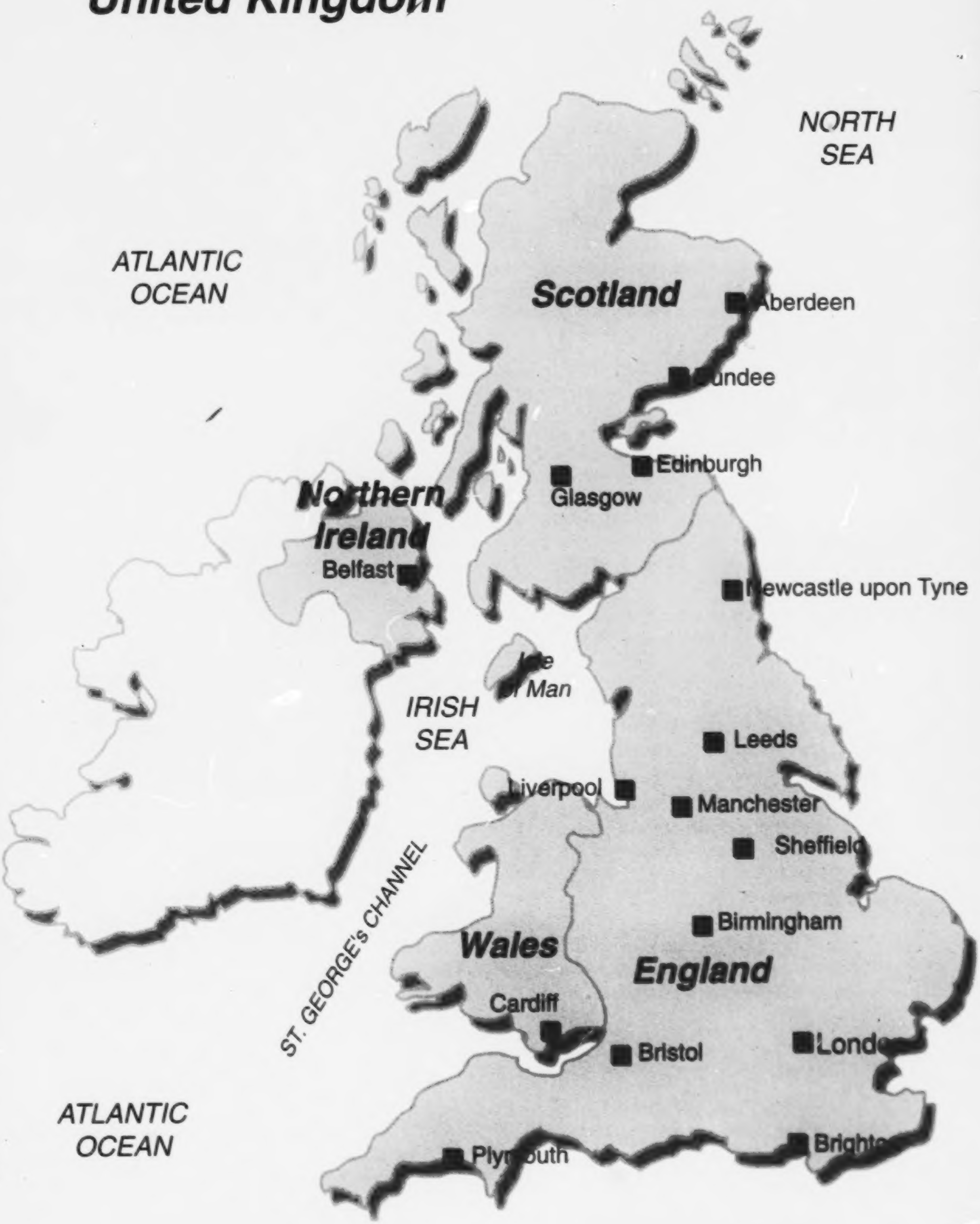
I must also acknowledge the enormous debt I owe to those who commented on the first draft. In alphabetical order, comments were received on behalf of: the Confederation of British Industry (CBI); the Department of Education and Science; the Department of Education, Northern Ireland; the Employment Department - Training, Enterprise and Education Directorate; the EURYDICE Unit for England and Wales at NFER; the National Council for Vocational Qualifications (NCVQ); the Scottish Office Education Department; the Scottish Vocational Education Council (SCOTVEC); and the Training and Employment Agency, Northern Ireland. Without exception the comments were constructive and helpful. I have tried to incorporate the spirit, and in as many cases as possible the suggested wording, of the comments in the revisions to the original draft. One result is that this monograph has a greater coverage of the systems in Scotland and Northern Ireland than is often the case in similar publications.

Grateful as I am to those who commented so extensively, I have to warn the reader that the responsibility for the text is mine. This monograph is not the authorised version of the Government of the United Kingdom. In particular, Section 4: Trends and Perspectives reflects my personal views, and not those of the CBI, NCVQ, NFER, SCOTVEC or any government department or agency.

Finally, I should like to express my thanks to friends at CEDEFOP who encouraged and supported my attempts to explain what many have found to be inexplicable - vocational education and training in the UK.

John Twining
Guildford,
March 1992.

United Kingdom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Leeds
Liverpool
Manchester
Sheffield
ST. GEORGE'S CHANNEL
Birmingham
Wales
England
Cardiff
Bristol
London
ATLANTIC OCEAN
Plymouth
Brighton
ENGLISH CHANNEL

1.1 Political and administrative structure

The United Kingdom

1.1.1

The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland (normally abbreviated as UK) comprises

- England
- Wales
- Scotland
- Northern Ireland.

1.1.2

The order in which these parts of the UK are often listed (as above) reflects the historical order in which there was legislative union with England. Great Britain technically means England, Wales and Scotland, although it is sometimes (as in GBP for £ Sterling) treated as synonymous with the UK.

1.1.3

There is no symmetry between the component parts of the UK. In the first place their populations differ widely. In broad terms the population of Northern Ireland is just over half that of Wales; the population of Wales is just over half that of Scotland; and the population of Scotland is little more than 10% of that of England.

Government

1.1.4

This lack of symmetry is also reflected in government. Elected Members of Parliament from all four parts of the kingdom sit in the UK House of Commons (lower chamber) and any UK citizen is eligible to be created a peer and to sit in the House of Lords (upper chamber). But there tend to be separate Acts of Parliament (statutes) for England and Wales and for Scotland. Legislation for Northern Ireland, which had a separate Parliament now suspended, is created by executive 'Order in Council'.

1.1.5

The Cabinet, the executive arm of central government, is largely comprised of the political heads (Secretaries of State) of the main government departments. There are Secretaries of State for Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland in the Cabinet, but there is no Secretary of State for England.

1.1.6

There is a single legal and judicial system for England and Wales, butseparate systems for Scotland and for Northern Ireland.

1.1.7

In local government, also, there are differences, especially when it comes to the level of local government with responsibility for education. In England the education authorities are counties or large urban boroughs (109 in all); Wales only has counties (eight of them). Scotland is divided into eight regional and three island councils; one region (Strathclyde) contains half the population of Scotland.

In Northern Ireland the five education authorities are known as Education and Library Boards.

1.1.8
Unlike any other EC country of a similar size, England is not formally divided into regions. Where regional divisions are used, they do not always coincide. For example, the division of England into regions for statistical purposes (eg as used by EUROSTAT) is similar to, but not identical to, the regions used for the Regional Advisory Councils which have several roles in relation to further education. The division into 'regions' for the Employment Department is different from either.

1.1.9
However, despite the differences between the component parts of the UK, it has a single government, a single currency, a single economy, a single tax system. The differences between the parts are often more formal than real. Legislation on education for Scotland, and Orders in Council for Northern Ireland, are recognisably similar to the legislation for England and Wales. The general structures of education, training and qualifications are almost the same throughout the UK, and are closer to each other than any one of them is to the structure of any other EC Member State.

Education and Training

1.1.10
Nevertheless, the differences are such that to confine any serious study of education and training in the UK to the position in England and Wales (as is often the case), would not provide a true picture. In this monograph, therefore, there is considerable coverage of the systems in Scotland and Northern Ireland.

1.1.11
It is no longer possible to make clear distinctions about the differences between education and training. In the 1960s and 1970s there was greater clarity, because the industrial training system had no responsibilities for school education and virtually none in relation to university and polytechnic degree and post-graduate provision. The only substantial overlap was with the further education sector, and even there the boundaries were reasonably clear.

1.1.12
During the 1980s there was a considerable blurring of these boundaries. While the Department of Education and Science in England (and its counterparts in the other areas of the UK) remained responsible in legislative terms for schools, colleges and institutions of higher education, Department of Employment programmes funded developments in all the educational sectors. The boundaries of these sectors is also changing, with redefinitions of Further Education and Higher Education (see glossary in Annex 4).

1.1.13
Although vocational and 'academic' qualifications are being brought closer together, it is still possible to use the generic term 'vocational education and training' and to navigate through the system by defining responsibilities for policy, implementation and funding.

1.1.14
The assymetry of the UK affects these responsibilities also. In the field of education, Scotland and Northern Ireland have long had separate systems, but the Welsh Office only assumed responsibility for education in the 1980s.

1.1.15
In the field of training, government intervention only started in the mid-1960s. Northern Ireland has always had a separate training system, but there was until quite recently a single system for England, Wales and Scotland. Training in Scotland is now no longer the direct responsibility of the UK Employment Department, and in Wales the responsibility rests with the Welsh Office from Spring 1992. However, Northern Ireland has tended to adopt the same system of vocational qualifications as England and Wales, but Scotland has for long had different arrangements.

1.1.16
In terms of political accountability, in 1991 the only elected bodies were the House of Commons and the multi-functional local government councils. While these remain responsible for education up to the statutory school leaving age, most responsibilities for post-school further education were in process of being taken from them (except in Northern Ireland). From spring 1993 these responsibilities will be shared by the Secretaries of State and the institutions themselves, and in England and Wales by Funding Councils whose members are appointed by the Secretaries of State. The common saying that the responsibility for providing education is devolved has taken a new meaning.

1.1.17
Training has never been a function of elected local councils. While the Secretaries of State remain accountable to Parliament, local responsibility for training in England and Wales has been devolved by contract to Training and Enterprise Councils (TECs) in England and Wales and to local enterprise companies (lecs) in Scotland, these bodies being created under company law. In Northern Ireland training is still organised by industrial sectors.

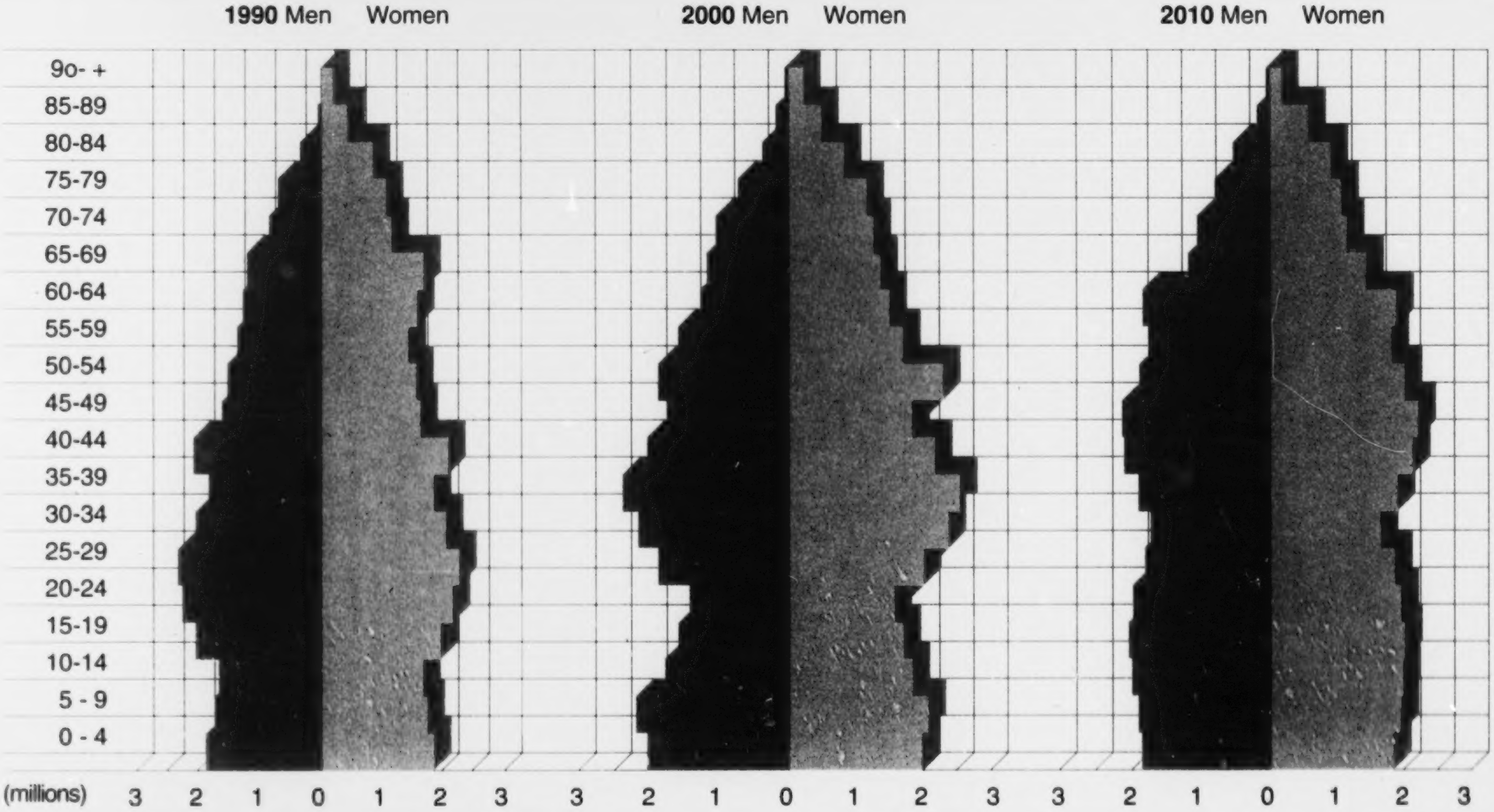
1.1.18
The period 1988-1993 is one of continuing major change in the structure of, and responsibilities for, vocational education and training. This monograph, written in the second half of 1991 and revised in part in early 1992, is published when the main lines of the changes have been announced and when some have been implemented. It attempts to explain this period of transition by linking past developments with current practice and future intentions.

1.2 Population and employment

1.2.1
The following diagrams illustrate some demographic and employment features of the UK.

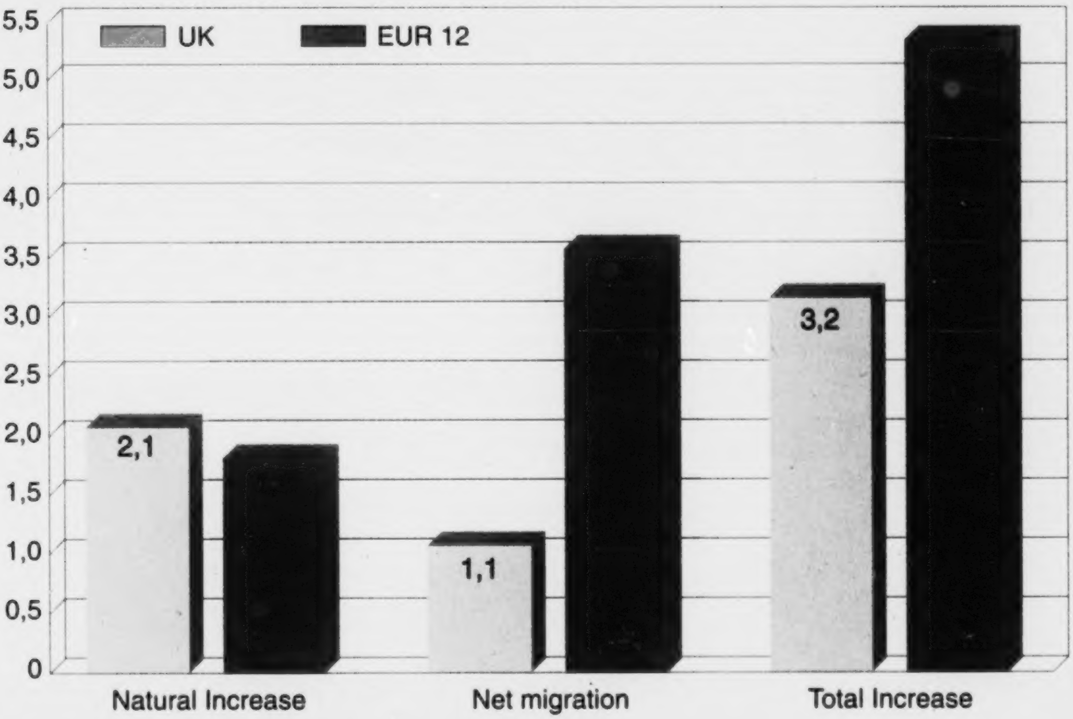
Age structure

Estimate as at 1 January 1990 — Forecast 2000 and 2010



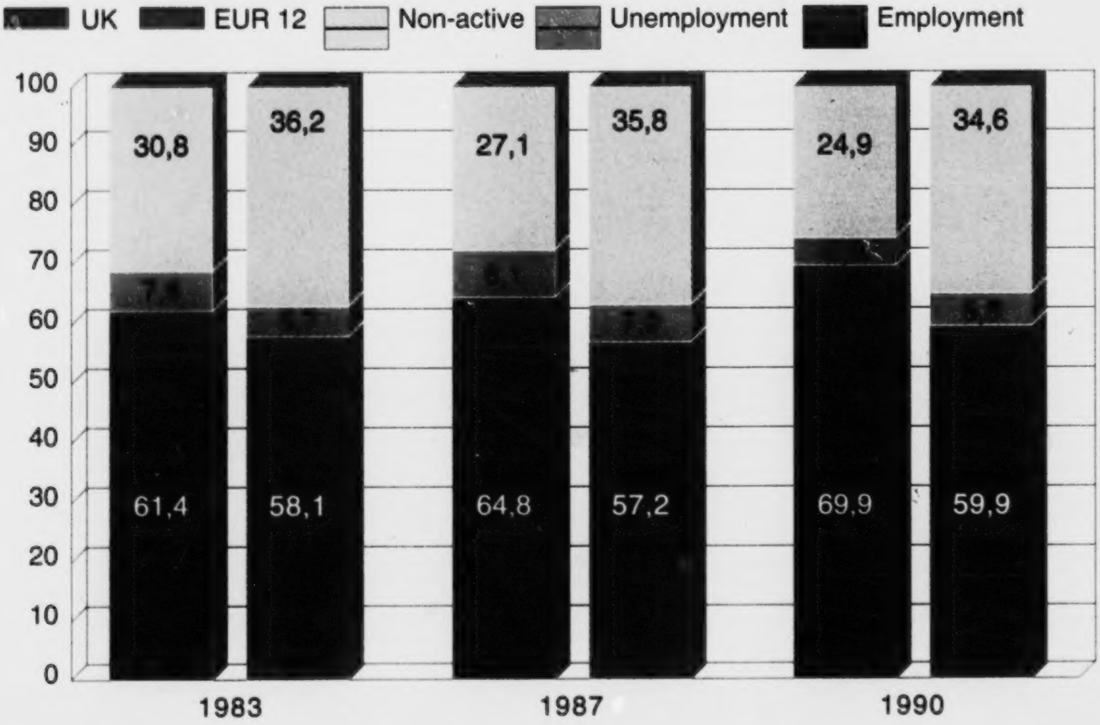
Source: Eurostat - Demographic Statistics 1992

Change of the population in 1989



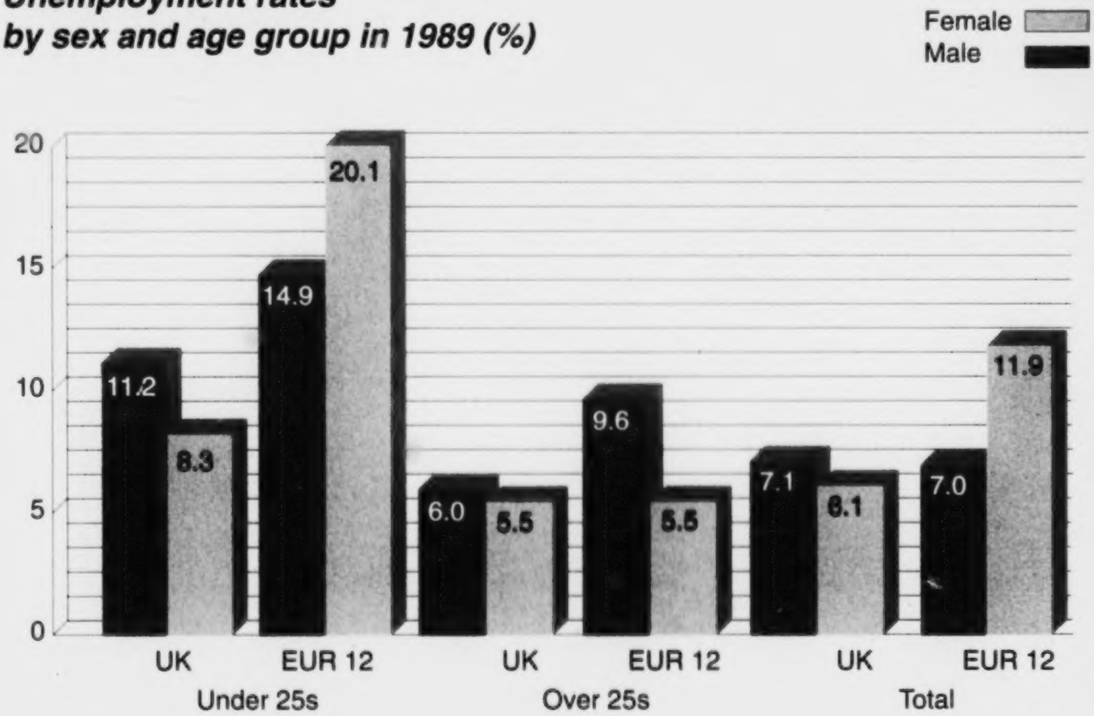
Source: Eurostat - A Social Portrait of Europe 1991

Population aged 14 to 64 according to economic status 1983 / 1987 / 1990 in %



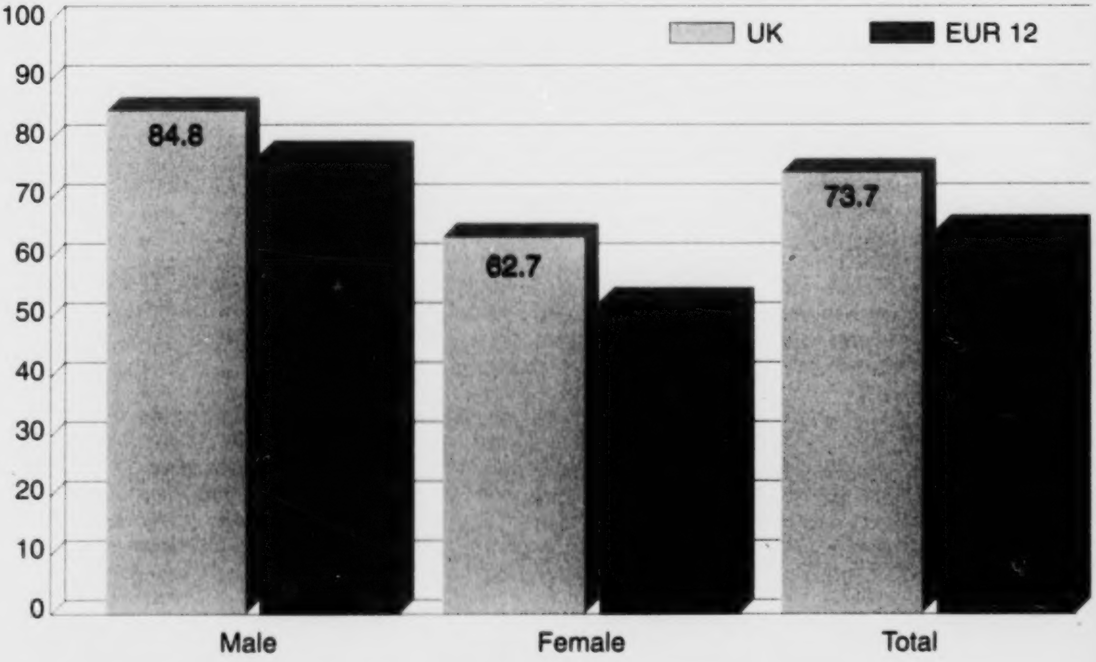
Source: Eurostat - Labour Force Surveys

Unemployment rates by sex and age group in 1989 (%)



Source: Eurostat - A Social Portrait of Europe 1991

Activity rate of population aged 14 to 64 in 1988 (%)

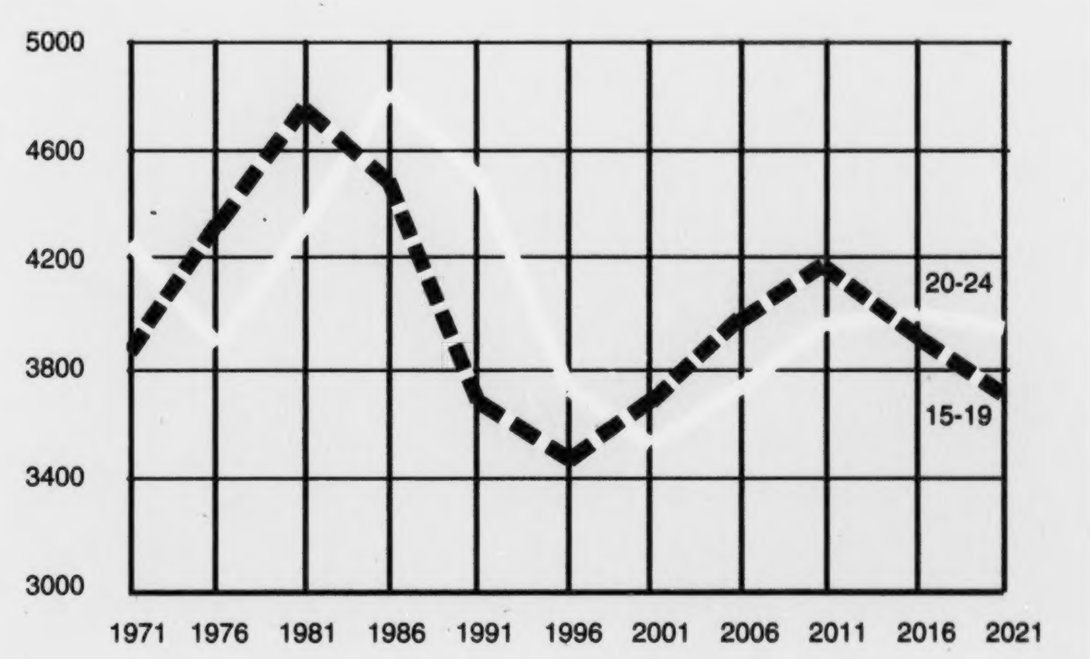


Source: Eurostat - A Social Portrait of Europe 1991

1.2.2

Despite the growth of continuing or life-long education and training, the concentration of expenditure and effort on vocational education and training is likely to be on the two age groups 15-19 and 20-24. The table below indicates the fluctuation of numbers in these groups in the UK between 1971 and 2021. This illustrates the underlying causes of high youth unemployment in the 1980s, the 'demographic time bomb' (limited numbers of young people available for employment) in the mid-1990s, and a gradual rise to fairly large numbers of young people at the end of the first decade of the 21st century, followed by a gradual fall.

15-19 & 20-24 age groups UK: estimates and projections, (000s)



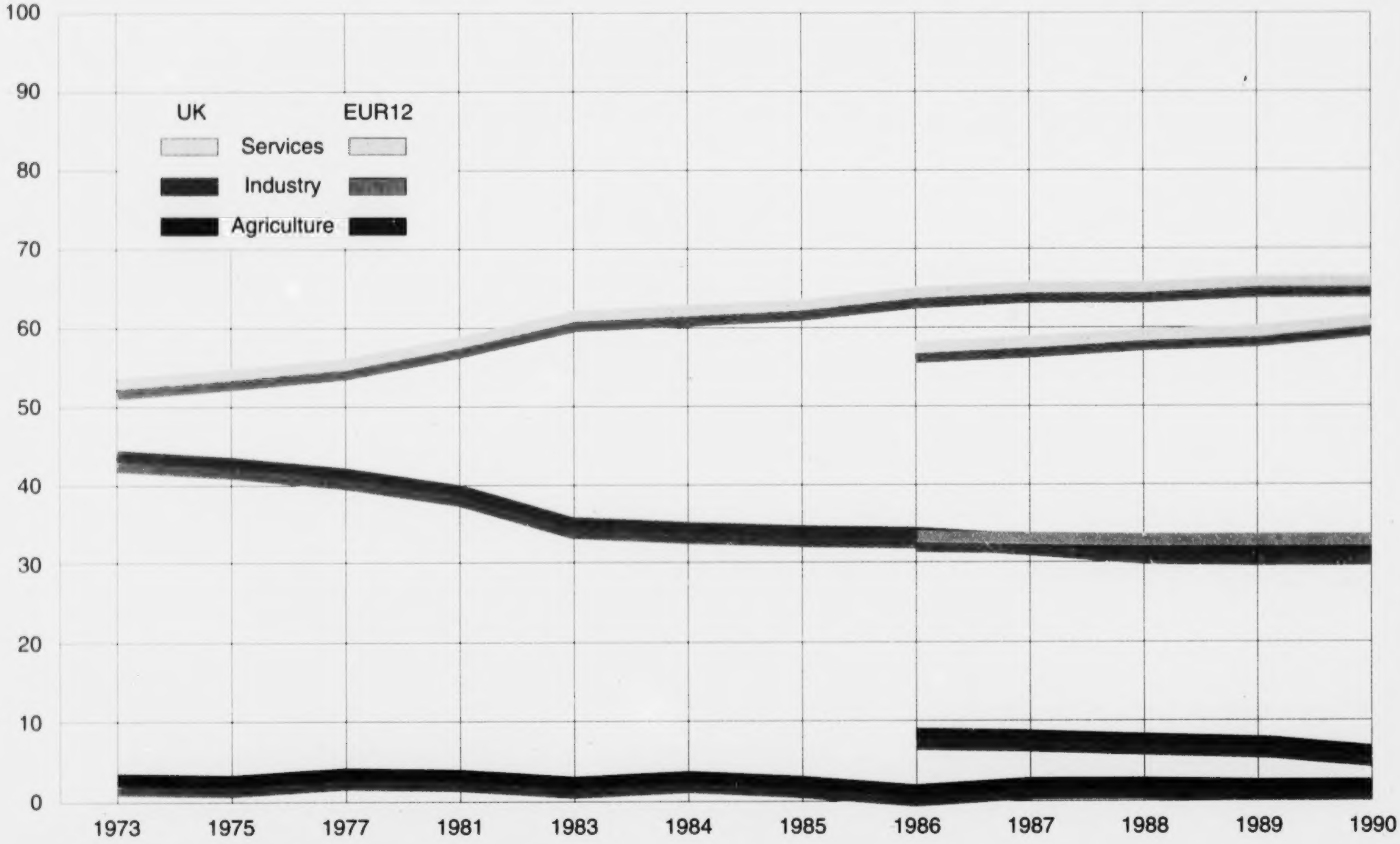
Source: Annual Abstract of Statistics 1991

1.3 The Economy

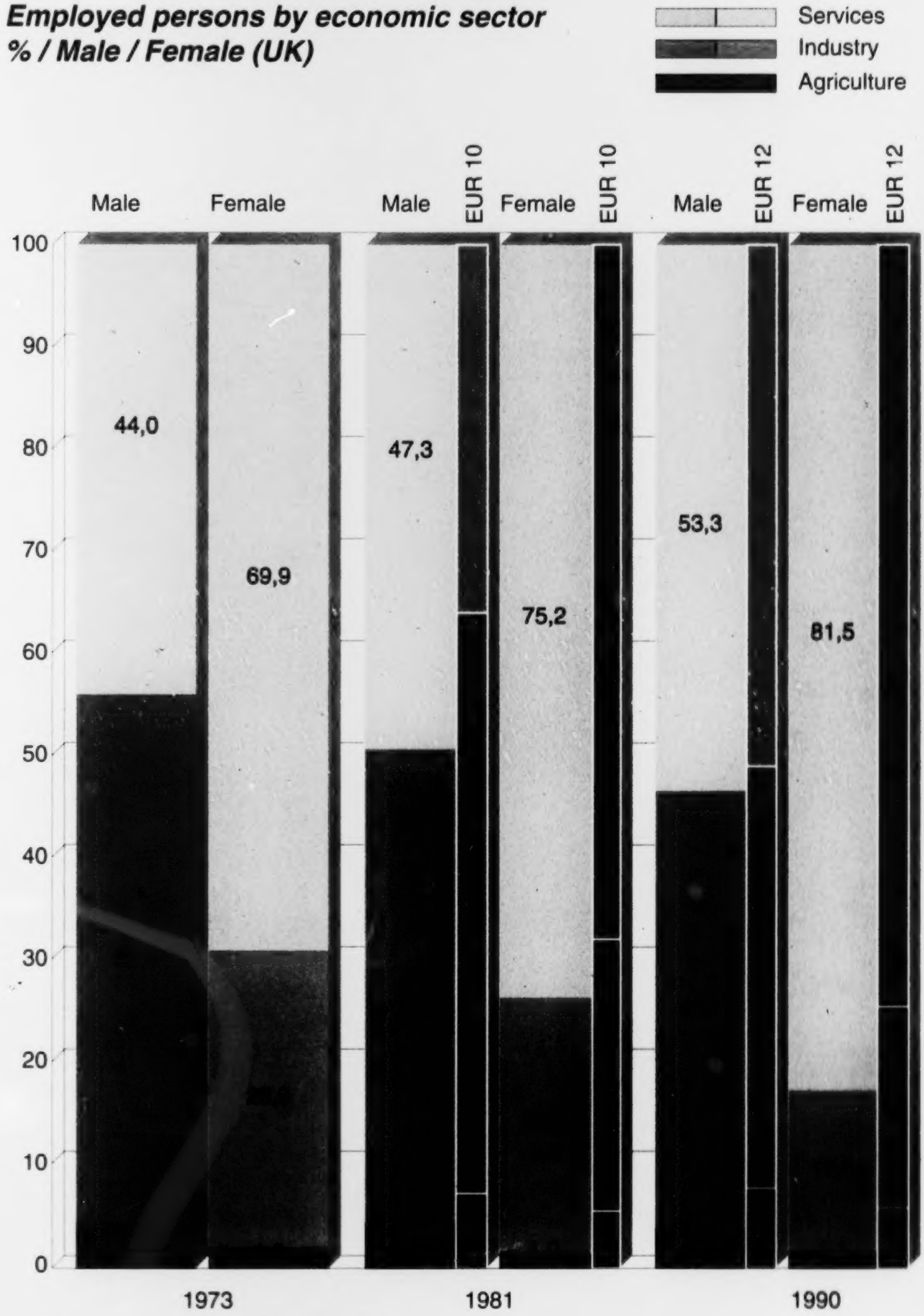
1.3.1

The following diagrams illustrate some relevant factors in the UK economy.

Employment by economic sector



Source: Eurostat - Labour Force Surveys 1980 - 1991



Employed persons by economic sector
% / Male / Female (UK)

Source: Eurostat: Labour Force Surveys

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1.3.2
Changes in the economy are reflected in changes in employment, which in turn influences vocational education and training. The table below shows changes in employment in selected industries between 1985 and 1989.

Changes in employment (selected industries)

(000s)	1985	1989
Agriculture, forestry and fishing	341	300
Energy and water supply	591	471
Chemical industry / man made fibres	342	326
Mechanical engineering	764	797
Electrical and electronic engineering	596	557
Motor vehicles and parts	274	271
Other manufacturing	2140	2176
Wholesale distribution	904	956
Retail distribution	2080	2257
Hotels and catering	1042	1124
Railways	148	135
Air transport	50	72
Financial services	2068	2675
Education	1616	1797
Medical and health services	1347	1485

Source: Annual Abstract of Statistics 1991

The following table provides similar data, and a comparison with the European Community as a whole.

Persons employed in industry and services by broad NACE group

%	1983 UK	1987 UK	 EUR 12	1990 UK	 EUR 12
Industry					
Energy and water	3.6	2.7	2.0	2.2	1.5
Mineral extraction, chemicals	4.0	3.4	4.5	3.1	3.6
Metal manufacture, engineering	12.2	11.2	11.6	9.9	10.0
Other manufacturing industries	10.8	10.0	11.5	9.0	10.4
Building and civil engineering	6.1	5.7	7.2	8.0	7.8
Services					
Distributive trades, hotels	19.0	19.6	16.0	20.3	18.9
Transport and communication	6.6	6.3	6.4	6.2	5.9
Banking, finance, insurance	7.9	9.8	7.7	11.3	8.0
Public administration	7.1	7.7	9.7	6.1	7.6
Other services	21.1	22.3	20.9	21.7	19.7

Source: Eurostat: Labour Force Surveys 1983, 1987 and 1990

NACE = Nomenclature des Activités économiques dans la Communauté Européenne / Classification of economic activities in the European Community.

1.3.3

The overall workforce in employment and those on training programmes broken down between males and females, are shown in the table below. It will be noted that while the number of the male workers in employment or on training programmes has hardly risen, the female workforce has risen by just over 18%.

UK workforce

	Workforce in employment		Training programmes	
(000s)	M	F	M	F
1980	15248	10078	—	—
1985	14288	10248	100	76
1989	18041	11724	291	171

Source: Annual Abstract of Statistics 1991

1.3.4

Another indicator of the economy is provided by unemployment figures and unfilled vacancies. Data are only available on the latter through government Job Centres, which may represent no more than one-third of the vacancies on the labour market. The following table sets out the unemployment rate and the unfilled vacancies for the UK between 1980 and 1990.

Unemployment and vacancies unfilled (UK January)

January (000s)	Unemployment	Job Centre vacancies unfilled
1980	1073,8	193,4
1985	3001,0	155,4
1990	1612,1	199,3

Source: Annual Abstract of Statistics 1991

1.3.5

There are, and have been, considerable regional differences in unemployment in the UK. The table below shows the percentage unemployment rate for Great Britain (as a whole and broken down into regions) and Northern Ireland in 1980, 1985, 1990 and 1991.

Rates of regional unemployment (UK seasonally adjusted) in %

	1980	1985	1990	1991
Great Britain	**5,0**	**10,8**	**5,5**	**7,9**
North	8,0	15,5	8,5	10,3
Yorkshire & Humberside	5,3	12,1	6,7	8,7
East Midlands	4,5	9,9	4,9	7,4
East Anglia	3,8	8,1	3,7	5,8
South East	3,1	8,1	3,7	6,9
SouthWest	4,5	9,3	4,3	7,2
West Midlands	5,5	12,8	5,8	8,5
North West	6,5	13,7	7,4	9,5
Wales	6,9	13,7	6,4	8,8
Scotland	7,0	12,9	8,0	9,0
Northern Ireland	**9,4**	**16,0**	**13.4***	**13.8***

Source: Annual Abstract of Statistics 1991 for 1980 and 1985
Labour Market Quarterly for 1990 and 1991
* Employment Gazette, October 1992

1.3.6

Although a recession had started in 1979/80, the effect on unemployment was still minimal in 1980. The growth in unemployment (which peaked in 1985/1986) was exacerbated by additional young people entering the labour market, and by long term structural changes in the economy. Unemployment then fell until 1990, but as shown in the last column of the previous table, has now risen in all regions. It will be noted, however, that the growth in unemployment in 1991 had a different regional pattern from that between 1980-1985, being more concentrated in the prosperous southern areas of the country. Unemployment is also more severe in some of the service industries which had previously shown most vigorous growth, e.g. retail distribution, air transport, financial services.

1.3.7

Measures of general prosperity are difficult to interpret. The table below shows the median weekly wages in 1980, 1985 and 1989 for workers in Great Britain compared with the internal purchasing power of the GBP for the UK for those years. It will be seen that the rise in median weekly wages was greater than the fall in the internal purchasing power of the GBP.

Median weekly wages (GB) and internal purchasing power of GBP (UK)

	Median weekly wages (GB)		Internal purchasing power of GBP (1980 = 100)
	M	F	
1980	113,3	72,4	100
1985	172,8	115,2	71
1989	235,5	160,1	58

Source: Annual Abstract of Statistics 1991

1.3.8

Another measure of the growth of underlying prosperity is the availability in households of various durable goods. The table below shows the growth of these goods between 1980 and 1988.

Availability in households of various durable goods (%)

	1980	1985	1988
Car(s)	60,3	62,8	66,0
Central heating	59,1	69,0	76,5
Washing machine	78,7	83,0	84,6
Refrigerator *	94,8	97,6	98,0
Television	96,9	97,6	98,0
Home computer	N/A	12,6	16,9
Video recorder	N/A	30,1	50,2

* in 1985 and 1988 fridge/freezers

Source : Annual Abstract of Statistics 1991

THE VOCATIONAL EDUCATION AND TRAINING SYSTEM

2.1 Evolution of the education and training system

Origins

2.1.1
Vocational training in England started with the medieval system of guilds, which controlled apprentice training and regulated the entry to trades. This lasted from the twelfth century until the passing of the Statute of Artificers in 1563, during the reign of Elizabeth I. Traces still remain of the guild-dominated crafts; for example the main London guilds helped found the City and Guilds of London Institute in 1878, and the Worshipful Company of Goldsmiths is today assisting the British Jewellers Association in formulating vocational qualifications for the industry.

2.1.2
The Statute of Artificers was already out of date when it came into force. The population rose from five to fourteen million from the end of the sixteenth to the beginning of the nineteenth century. The limitations imposed by the law became unworkable in the industrial revolution and the Statute was gradually and quietly ignored, until its abolition in 1814.

The nineteenth century

2.1.3
For the next 150 years, the principle adopted by successive British governments was that the training of workers and employees was solely a task for commerce and industry, and was in no way the responsibility of the State. During the greater part of the nineteenth century, this principle of non-intervention by the State also applied largely to education, which was left to schools sponsored by various communal and religious foundations, or by private bodies or even individuals. Throughout the nineteenth century, however, there were a series of government reports which expressed concern about the state of education, for example Reports of the Parliamentary Committees on the Education of the Lower Orders in the Metropolis and Beyond, 1816-18; Creation of the Committee of the Council for Education, 1834; Report of the Commissioners of Inquiry into the State of Education in Wales, 1847; Report of the Commissioners appointed to inquire into the State of Popular Education in England (the Newcastle Report), 1861; Report of the Royal Commission known as the Schools Inquiry Commission (the Taunton Report), 1868.

2.1.4
Initially, state intervention in education was related to the conditions under which children worked, regulated by a series of Factory Acts from 1802 onwards. A law in 1833 prescribed that working children aged from 9 to 13 years of age had to receive two hours daily for six days a week, instruction in reading, writing and arithmetic. In 1844 the working hours for children were restricted to six and a half hours per day; they had to attend school every day for a further three hours. Laws of 1874, 1891 and 1901 then raised the minimum age for employment of children, successively to 10, 11 and 12 years, and the regulations for education and training were tightened up. Broadly similar developmental patterns were occurring in Scotland.

2.1.5

In 1870 the Elementary Education Act divided the country into school districts (boroughs or civil parishes, with London as a single school district), and introduced compulsory elementary education. A Board of Education was established by law in 1899.

Twentieth century legislation

2.1.6

The Education Act 1902 transferred the responsibility for education to the county and urban authorities which became known as Local Education Authorities (LEAs). This Act provided for a considerable expansion of secondary education, which nevertheless did not become compulsory until 1918. The Education Act of 1918 abolished part-time education, and laid down that at least half of the costs of education were to be carried by the Treasury (Ministry of Finance) while the rest was to be covered by the local rates. Fees for elementary education were abolished completely. Compulsory education was extended to 14 years of age.

2.1.7

The Education Act 1944 made many legal changes which had been proposed for a long time. The compulsory school leaving age was raised to 15, and provision was included for it to be raised to 16 without further legislation (in fact this happened in 1972). The Board of Education became the Ministry of Education (and later the Department of Education and Science). Three levels of education (primary, secondary and further) were defined. Universities were not included in this legislation and retained their traditional independent existence.

2.1.8

More recent education legislation is dealt with in section 2.2.

The development of vocational education and training

2.1.9

The arrangements for vocational education and training which existed in the nineteenth century proved inadequate in the face of increasing demands of industry and commerce. The industrial revolution, which occurred first in Britain, was not based there on a sound system of education and training. Rather, there was a combination of favourable circumstances (raw materials, the availability of capital, low taxes, a society which accepted social mobility, a legal system which enabled individuals and organisations to plan ahead with confidence). These factors enabled able and intelligent practical men to develop and exploit their ideas for industrial change. There was, however, a considerable vacuum in education and training. This vacuum was partly filled by the mechanics institutes, which first appeared in Scotland at the end of the eighteenth century, and then quickly spread out over the whole of the United Kingdom. They were intended to provide workers with skills of writing and arithmetic to meet the needs of expanding industries, and also to meet individuals' demands for knowledge.

2.1.10

In this way vocational training in Great Britain developed partly in parallel with the general system of education. The mechanics institutes were financed mostly by benefactors, and partly by the workers themselves; none received any subsidies from public funds. Regional unions of institutes started to form, and encouraged the idea of providing evidence of successful study by means of examinations. The Society for the Encouragement of Arts, Manufacturers and Commerce in Great Britain, founded in 1755, and today known as the Royal Society of Arts (RSA), was chosen for this role. In 1852, 220 institutes joined the RSA, which then became the examination body for the affiliated Regional Unions. Some other institutes still carried on with their own examinations. In 1878 the main guilds of London had a major part in founding the City and Guilds of London Institute for the Advancement of Technical Education, thus renewing their original role in vocational training. In 1879 City and Guilds took over the technical examinations from the RSA, which thereafter confined itself to commercial and clerical subjects.

2.1.11

In 1889 the Local Education Authorities (LEAs) were empowered by the Technical Instruction Act to levy rates for the foundation of technical schools. The LEAs gradually became responsible for the mechanics institutes, and in this way a system of further education was created which is still recognisable today, in spite of considerable changes which occurred after 1956, and the pending removal of colleges from local education authority control. Great Britain now had provisions for further education, which quickly developed into an unusually wide-ranging and adaptable system. Many of the 700 technical and commercial colleges forged close and lasting connections with the employers in their respective localities. Firms started to offer their expert staff as visiting lecturers and to donate machinery and materials. Governing bodies were established for the colleges and industrial representatives began to appear on them. Advisory committees helped colleges with the planning of courses and ensured that these fulfilled the users' needs.

2.1.12

The colleges provided opportunities for ambitious men and women of any age to follow further education or vocational courses, and in this way to attain levels which matched their talents and energy. At the same time a wide range of recreational courses was developed, provided through a network of about 8,000 evening institutes.

2.1.13

Most of the original courses offered by the colleges were in the evenings. However day-release, block-release and sandwich courses gradually spread. In 1938 there were 42,000 full-time students in further education in England and Wales. Although there were just over one million part-time students, only 36,000 of these were given release by their employers to attend classes on two or more days in a week. Virtually all the others were attending classes in their own time, and often at their own expense. In this way, almost by chance, an early form of life-long education developed in Great Britain. The very success of the British system of further education, however, made it easy to overlook the fact that only a small proportion of the population was able to take advantage of these opportunities.

Professional bodies

2.1.14
The late eighteenth century and the nineteenth century was a period in which people came together in societies and institutions because they wished to increase their knowledge of a particular subject or range of subjects. In 1851 there were only four universities in England - Oxford, Cambridge, Durham and London. Engineers and applied scientists did not go to university.

2.1.15
In the absence of a strong university sector, full membership of some of the institutions provided the status and recognition achieved in other countries by university degrees and higher degrees. During the nineteenth century this was often a way forward for the 'new' professions, in addition to the traditional ones of Church and Law. These major institutions (the aim of most of which was to receive a Royal Charter) evolved to qualify people by examination as practitioners in a particular field. Their importance for the upper end of vocational education and training exists to this day.

Technicians

2.1.16
Full professional membership of these institutions was supplemented by technician qualifications after the First World War (because of the belief that the British armaments industry had been insufficiently effective due to a lack of technician personnel). Many of the courses in colleges were designed to enable shop floor workers to obtain these technician qualifications and possibly even full professional status. However, open entry to these courses meant that many joined them who had little hope of passing the examination. The drop-out rate and examination failure rate became a national scandal, and in 1961 White Papers (Better Opportunities in Technical Education in England and Wales and a similar one in Scotland) proposed a re-structuring of vocational education courses into technician, craft and operative streams. This re-structuring lasted until the introduction of the present framework by the National Council for Vocational Qualifications in the 1980s (see subsection 2.3).

Training

2.1.17
From 1925 onwards there were Government Training Centres (GTCs) for vocational training. They were, however, more concerned with helping the unemployed than in meeting industry's needs for skilled workers. After the second World War they were used to rehabilitate ex-soldiers and disabled people and to train them to take part in the post-war recovery. From 1970 onwards training was provided in Skillcentres (formerly GTCs) for people who were unemployed or who were prepared to give up their jobs to achieve better qualifications, hopefully to gain better jobs later on. The numbers of Skillcentres rose to over 100, with about 18,000 training places. Skillcentres remained part of government training provision until the late 1980s, when a number were closed and the remainder were privatised; one of the private owners has since gone into liquidation.

2.1.18
After the end of the 1939-45 war the Ministry of Labour set up a Joint Consultative Committee, with representatives of the employers and the trade unions, to develop suggestions for the employment and training of young people. A report in 1945 recommended the formation of National Joint Apprenticeship and Training Councils for each sector.

Government intervention in training

2.1.19
In 1958 the Carr report, *Training for Skill*, still supported a voluntary approach to industrial training, but this was not thought sufficient in an increasingly competitive international climate. Post-war government intervention in many parts of the economy was eventually applied to training also, and the Industrial Training Act was passed in 1964. By 1969, 27 Statutory Industrial Training Boards (ITBs) had been established; they had a tripartite membership: employers, trade unions and educational interests; only the first two were entitled to vote on levy and grant matters.

2.1.20
Together with three voluntary Boards (for the Insurance Industry, the Merchant Navy and Local Government), the ITBs covered about 15.5 million employees in over one million firms out of a working population totalling 25 million. The levies collected by the statutory boards amounted to nearly GBP 195 million a year (about 415 million ECU). The ITBs fixed their levies at betwen 0.5% to 2.5% of the total wage bill for each firm. Because of stiff opposition from the industry, the Agricultural, Horticultural and Forestry ITB was unable to collect a levy. The Board was therefore supported by an allocation of funds from the Government's agricultural price support scheme, and eventually came under Agricultural legislation.

2.1.21
At the end of the 1960s the Industrial Training Act was criticised, particularly by small firms who considered that they derived no benefit from the Levy/Grant system. After two years of study and debate, the newly-elected Conservative Government introduced the Employment and Training Act 1973, which provided for the establishment of an independent Manpower Services Commission (MSC). The levy/grant system was limited by the introduction of exemption provisions for companies which met certain training requirements, and the deficit made up by annual grants from the Treasury. Area Manpower Boards provided a measure of local advice.

2.1.22
The early 1970s provided a high watermark of initial training under the Industrial Training Boards with, for example, some 21,000 young people in engineering receiving full-time first year off-the-job training; many of these were apprentices. By the middle of that decade, however, the post-war birth rate 'bulge' had worked its way through to the school leavers, and more young people were coming on to the employment market than there were jobs. Indeed, by the end of the 1970s an economic recession had so exacerbated youth unemployment that it became a major preoccupation of policy makers in vocational education and training.

2.1.23
A series of government and MSC reports and measures led to the introduction of a one year Youth Training Scheme (YTS) in the early 1980s. The significance of this was that it was available to school leavers, whether unemployed or in employment, and brought together a number of separate programmes.

2.1.24
Recruitment of apprentices dropped drastically in the recession, and there were also criticisms of the achievement of competence by time serving (which was often a feature of UK apprenticeship) and the comparatively high wages (by international standards) paid to apprentices. YTS was seen by some as a modern substitute. Although this view was not generally accepted, the early 1980s recession and the introduction of YTS mark a break with the historical system of apprenticeships in most industries.

2.1.25
By 1986 the YTS was extended to two years for 16 year-olds and one year for 17 year-olds. Although not all those who completed YTS found jobs, demographic factors gradually reduced the number of young people in the age group to the extent that by 1989 fears were being expressed about a 'demographic time bomb'. Industry feared it would be unable to recruit the young people it needed, and would have either to find other sources of recruitment, or to compete for those available, thus increasing wage inflation. However, the recession which started in 1990 reduced the expected demand and, while not having the same degree of seriousness as a decade earlier, by 1991 youth unemployment was again emerging as a problem.

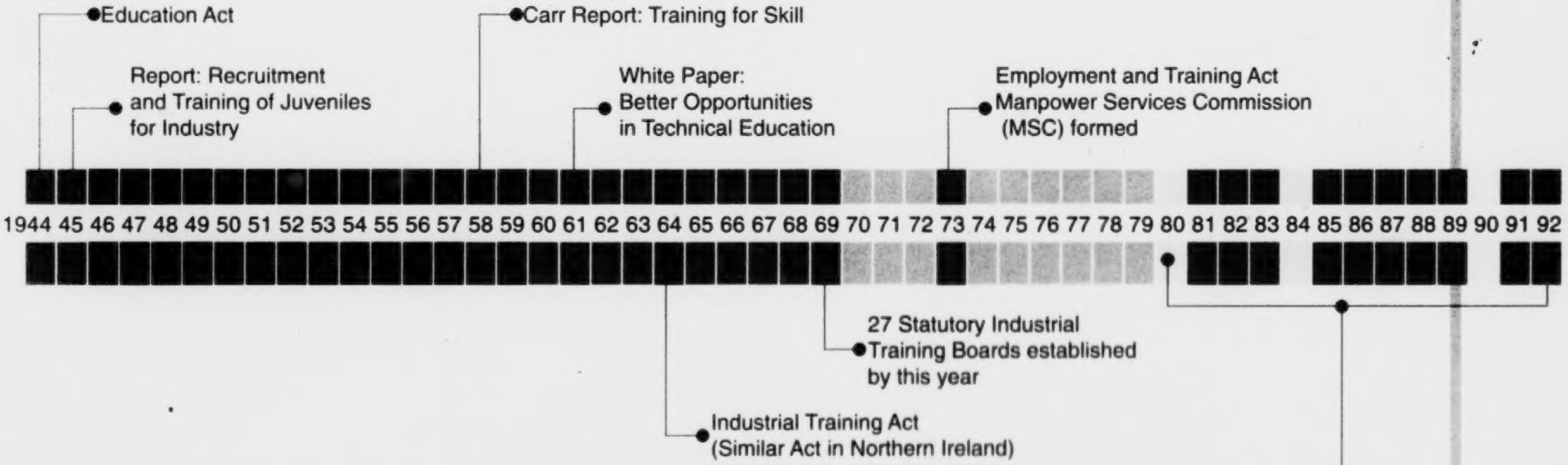
The decline of intervention

2.1.26
Meanwhile, in 1981, the MSC's New Training Initiative had ushered in a decade of change in the field of training. Industrial Training Boards were reviewed. Many were abolished immediately, and some over a period of time until, in 1991, hardly any were left.

2.1.27
In the 1980s also, new initiatives affected adult training. The Open Tech programme provided the impetus for the widespread use of open learning in both education and industry. The Department of Education and Science launched the PICKUP programme to make use of the national investment in the college structure.

2.1.28
In 1988, a disagreement between the government and the trades union representatives on the Manpower Services Commission led to the abolition of the MSC and its gradual transformation from being a quasi-independent agency responsible for training to being a directorate of the Employment Department. This change underlined the gradual abandonment of the interventionist policies of the 1960s, and the greater reliance on other pressures to ensure the level of training needed by a modern economy.

Evolution of the training system


Education Act
Report: Recruitment and Training of Juveniles for Industry
Carr Report: Training for Skill
White Paper: Better Opportunities in Technical Education
Employment and Training Act
Manpower Services Commission (MSC) formed
1944 45 46 47 48 49 50 51 52 53 54 55 56 57 58 59 60 61 62 63 64 65 66 67 68 69 70 71 72 73 74 75 76 77 78 79 80 81 82 83 84 85 86 87 88 89 90 91 92
27 Statutory Industrial Training Boards established by this year
Industrial Training Act
(Similar Act in Northern Ireland)

1981	MSC's New Training Initiative
1982	Open Tech programme started PICKUP programme started
1983	YTS started
1985	SCOTVEC formed
1986	National Council for Vocational Qualifications formed Two year YTS
1987	Open College formed
1988	Abolition of MSC Employment Training started Education Reform Act
1989	TECs and lecs established
1991	White Papers: *Education and Training for the 21st Century* *Access and Opportunity* *Higher Education: a new framework*
1992	White Paper: *Jobs and Opportunities* Further and Higher Education Act

Qualifications

2.1.29

The drive to increase competence in the workforce led to an attempt to rationalise vocational qualifications by the creation in 1986 of the National Council for Vocational Qualifications. In Scotland the Scottish Vocational Education Council (SCOTVEC) was formed in 1985 by the Secretary of State by the amalgamation of SCOTEC and SCOTBEC - two vocational awarding bodies. SCOTVEC is now the national body in Scotland with responsibility for developing, awarding and accrediting vocational qualifications.

2.1.30

The intention was for vocational qualifications to be based on competences, i.e. on statements of what a worker could do, and so on outcomes rather than the process of education and training. Although many vocational qualifications had been moving in this direction since the 1970s, the combination of a comprehensive structure based on outcomes, and insistence on relevance to the workplace, was seen by some as a revolution.

2.1.31

Responsibility for these statements of competence rests with 'Lead Bodies' for industrial sectors and occupations. Many of the Lead Bodies have been drawn from the Non-Statutory Training Organisations (NSTOs) which replaced the Industrial Training Boards. Thus the employers in a sector are intended to be, and are seen to be the originators of statements of competence.

The localisation of training

2.1.32

One of the continuing problems in the UK has been the comparative lack of interest which industry has shown in the provision of training (with many honourable exceptions). In 1989, the government, in an attempt to overcome this attitude by structural reform, announced the creation of 82 locally based Training and Enterprise Councils in England and Wales, and 22 local enterprise companies in Scotland. These new TECs and lecs would give local industry the responsibility for training, and would enable local training needs to be met more effectively.

2.1.33

UK governments have traditionally taken the view that training is the responsibility of employers. The interpretation of 'reponsibility' has varied. Since the late 1980s the policy has been that employers should take the lead in all aspects of training. The concept of involvement of social partners, by the inclusion of trade unions in policy making, or by working through federations of industrial bodies, is not seen as having been a success in the interventionist stage of the history of British training.

2.1.34
Eight Industrial Training Boards (ITBs) in Northern Ireland were established originally under the Industrial Training Act (NI) 1964 and subsequently the Industrial Training (NI) Order 1984. The Boards operated under legislation similar to that in Great Britain.

2.1.35
The ITBs were serviced until 1 July 1990 by an umbrella organisation the Northern Ireland Training Authority (NITA) which also had powers to review the training needs of industry, including carrying out research and developing and promoting new techniques of training in new technology. The functions of NITA have been transferred to the Training and Employment Agency and the ITBs encouraged to establish themselves as private sector training organisations.

2.2 The organisation of vocational education and training

Introduction

2.2.1

The system of vocational education and training in the UK is complex. Responsibilities are diffused. Quite a few of the bodies exercising these responsibilities were created in the second half of the 1980s, but they co-exist with bodies which have evolved since the mid-nineteenth century or even earlier. This sub-section describes the position towards the end of 1991, together with a review of future intentions.

The education departments

2.2.2

There are separate education departments for England: Department of Education and Science (DES); Wales: Welsh Office (WO); Scotland: Scottish Office Education Department (SOED); Northern Ireland: Department of Education for Northern Ireland (DENI). As noted in paragraphs 1.1.9 and 1.1.10, these departments develop similar policies in similar ways, but with some differences of application and emphasis.

Note: In July 1992 The Department of Education and Science was retitled the Department for Education (DFE). In this monograph, however, the old title is used throughout.

2.2.3

In general terms, these government education departments:

- determine national aims and formulate national policy, including policies on the core curriculum and assessment of pupils of statutory school age;
- commission research and support actions on the development of the school curriculum and public examinations;
- set minimum standards of educational provision;
- are responsible for the funding of further and higher education.

2.2.4

Government education departments neither provide education nor administer individual schools or colleges, but they have the power to intervene if individual local authorities or schools do not discharge their statutory duties satisfactorily. They can influence developments, partly through the allocation of resources, partly through powers of approval (e.g. of a college's Articles of Government or courses which may receive funding), and partly by being able to require action to be taken (e.g. the publication of their examination results by schools and colleges).

Higher education

2.2.5
In 1991 the so-called 'binary division' between universities on the one hand and polytechnics and colleges of higher education was maintained. The universities in England, Scotland and Wales, with the exception of the Open University (directly funded) and the University of Buckingham (independent), were funded for both teaching and research through the Universities Funding Council (UFC), established under the Education Reform Act 1988. The DES has the lead responsibility within government for university funding. There were separate arrangements for funding non-university higher education in England, Scotland and Wales:

- In England, the Education Reform Act 1988 re-established polytechnics and other major local education authority (LEA) colleges of higher education as independent free-standing institutions, and set up the Polytechnics and Colleges Funding Council (PCFC) as the channel of public funding to a new sector composed of those institutions and nearly all of those formerly directly funded by the DES.
  The PCFC also funded most of the higher education provided alongside further education in LEA colleges.

- In Wales, the Polytechnic and some colleges were currently maintained by local authorities, while one college was directly funded by the Welsh Office. Local authority funding was determined at a national level by the Welsh Office with advice from the Wales Advisory Body for Local Authority Higher Education. The local authority higher education institutions in Wales are to become independent free-standing institutions from April 1993.

- In Scotland, the central institutions and colleges of education are directly funded by the Scottish Office. Some higher education is also provided in local authority further education colleges.

2.2.6
In Northern Ireland there are no institutions of higher education other than the universities. The Department of Education, Northern Ireland centrally funds the universities, taking account of advice from the UFC in order to ensure broadly comparative provision with other universities in the UK.

Schools and further education

2.2.7
All aspects of education in England are the responsibility of the Department of Education and Science, and in Wales of the Welsh Office.

2.2.8
Current expenditure by local authorities (including teachers' salaries) is met partly by the Revenue Support Grant from central government and partly by local authority revenues (eg income from the Community Charge and charges for local authority services). The actual amount of Revenue Support Grant received depends on the government's assessment of the authority's expenditure needs as compared with its locally-raised income.

2.2.9
Under the Education Reform Act 1988 schools have been able to opt out from local authority control and become directly grant-aided by the Department of Education and Science. By autumn 1991 100 schools, mostly secondary, had opted out. It is expected that opting will accelerate over the next few years.

2.2.10
The Self Governing Schools (Scotland) Act 1989 made similar provision in Scotland to enable schools to opt out of local authority control and receive grants directly from the Secretary of State.

2.2.11
The Scottish Office Education Department (SOED) is responsible to Parliament for the overall supervision and development of education in Scotland. Amongst many other functions the Secretary of State issues guidance to education authorities on the design and cost of educational buildings and on such matters as curriculum and teaching methods. In Scotland most of the schools supported from public funds are provided by education authorities. Education authorities also make provision for further education for students aged 16 and over in further education colleges.

2.2.12
The Department of Education for Northern Ireland (DENI) has full responsibility for schools and further education in Northern Ireland. The five Education and Library Boards have statutory responsibility for provision of services equivalent to the education authorities in England and Wales, although their expenditure is 100% grant-aided by DENI. DENI currently pays salaries of teachers in all schools and of further education lecturers etc. as a matter of administrative convenience.

2.2.13
More details on further education are given in paragraphs 2.2.29 - 2.2.34, and 2.4.45 - 2.4.47.

The White Papers of 1991

2.2.14
In mid-1991 the government published three separate White Papers:

- *Education and Training for the 21st Century* for England and Wales
- *Access and Opportunity* from the Scottish Office
- *Higher Education: A New Framework* covering the whole UK.

These white papers are important sources of information on government thinking.

2.2.15
Education and Training for the 21st Century stated the government's intention to legislate to remove further education and sixth form colleges in England and Wales from local authority control, and to make them autonomous bodies with funding from new Further Education Funding Councils for England and for Wales. *Access and Opportunity* indicated that in Scotland also, the further education colleges would be established as corporate bodies with local identity; their funding would come directly from the Scottish Office. Behind these moves is the government's belief that institutions are likely to be more business-like, and thus more responsive to industrial and commercial needs, if they are not treated as a service under local authority control.

2.2.16
Higher Education: A New Framework announced the government's intention to legislate to abolish the boundary between universities and other institutions of higher education, to abolish the UFC and PCFC, and to introduce territorial Funding Councils for higher education in England, Scotland and Wales. Northern Ireland's unitary system for higher education will continue, and arrangements will be made to ensure that there is a close relationship between it and higher education in the rest of the UK.

2.2.17
In Northern Ireland, also in mid-1991, the government published a policy document about the future direction of further education entitled *Further Education in Northern Ireland - The Road Ahead.* This indicated that, unlike England, Wales and Scotland, further education colleges in Northern Ireland would not be removed from local authority control. However, a review group would be set up to advise the government about the planning and funding of further education.

2.2.18
In early 1992, legislation to give effect to the changes announced in the white papers was enacted by Parliament.

Government responsibility for vocational training

2.2.19
In Great Britain the Secretary of State for Employment has the lead responsibility for training. In England and Wales responsibility for training is exercised by the Employment Department through the system of Training and Enterprise Councils (TECs). However, in Scotland the Secretary of State for Scotland has operational responsibility for training which he has devolved to two agencies; Scottish Enterprise and Highlands and Islands Enterprise, which also have enterprise generating functions. These two agencies in turn use their respective networks of local enterprise companies (lecs) as delivery agencies for most of their programmes.

2.2.20

The organisation of vocational education and training in Great Britain has become diffused because authority has been given to a large number of autonomous bodies. Between them, these are responsible for the organisation of vocational education and training by:

- **Industrial sectors:** the responsibility lies with Industrial Training Organisations (ITOs), some created by statute, but now mostly non-statutory (see paragraph 2.2.21).

- **Geographical location:** the responsibility lies with Training and Enterprise Councils (TECs) in England and Wales, and Scottish Enterprise, Highlands and Islands Enterprise and their respective networks of local enterprise companies (lecs) in Scotland (see paragraphs 2.2.22 - 2.2.24).

- **Occupations:** the responsibility for determining the standards of competences associated with different occupations or groups of occupations rests with Lead Bodies (LBs), many of which are also ITOs (see paragraphs 2.2.25 and 2.3.10).

- **Award of qualifications:** in England, Wales and Northern Ireland a large number of awarding bodies (ABs) are responsible for awarding qualifications, some of which are subject to accreditation by the National Council for Vocational Qualifications (NCVQ); in Scotland, the Scottish Vocational Education Council (SCOTVEC) is responsible for developing and accrediting Scottish Vocational Qualifications (SVQs).
  A full account is given in sub-section 2.3.

- **Delivery of vocational education and training:** this is the responsibility of some 500 colleges, several hundred managing agents (some of which may be colleges), private enterprise training organisations and, not least, employers themselves (see paragraphs 2.2.26 - 2.2.35).

- **Research:** there is no overall authority for research which is normally funded by government departments and undertaken by institutions specialist bodies or consultants (see paragraphs 2.2.36 - 2.2.39).

An understanding of the relationship between these different bodies is crucial for understanding the system as a whole, and is expanded in the following paragraphs, while the rather different position in Northern Ireland is described in paragraphs 2.2.40 - 2.2.43.

Industrial sectors

2.2.21
The division of responsibility for training into industrial sectors derived largely from the Industrial Training Act 1964, under which 27 statutory Industrial Training Boards (ITBs) were created. Since 1981 the ITBs have progressively been replaced by Non-Statutory ITOs, of which there were just over 100 in 1991, while the number of statutory ITBs was reduced to three by mid-1991. The Non-Statutory ITOs typically cover much smaller industrial sectors than the predecessor ITBs. While the ITBs were able to raise funds from their industrial sectors by a levy imposed under the 1964 Industrial Training Act, the ITOs depend on membership fees and the sale of their services. They tend, therefore, to be fairly small bodies. The National Council for Industrial Training Organisations (NCITO) acts as a focal point for ITOs. Membership is voluntary, but about 90% of NSTOs belong to it.

Localisation

2.2.22
The localisation of responsibility for training dates from 1989 when the Secretary of State for Employment started to establish a system of Training and Enterprise Councils in England and Wales which was completed in 1991. In Scotland the Secretary of State for Scotland set up two new enterprise bodies: Scottish Enterprise and Highlands and Islands Enterprise in April 1991, each with training, enterprise and environmental responsibilities implemented through networks of local enterprise companies which were established at the same time. Their budgets for enterprise were derived from the previous Scottish Development Agency. The aim of these TECs and local enterprise companies, which were influenced by the Private Industry Councils (PICs) in the USA, is to involve local industry in the identification of training needs and the organisation of training. Their responsibilities include training programmes for young people entering the labour force and for the adult unemployed which have hitherto been run by the Employment Department.

2.2.23
Members of TECs must be chief executives of enterprises, and at least two thirds of the board members of local enterprise companies must occupy senior management positions in business. Local enterprise companies are required to have a majority of board members who are chief executives of business (at least 8 out of 12). People from other backgrounds may take up the remaining board places but no other groups (eg. professional personnel staff, senior educationalists and trade unionists) are eligible for board places as of right.

2.2.24
The boundaries of TECs often, but not always, coincide with local authority boundaries, although in large urban areas a TEC may encompass several local authorities. In Scotland, with one exception, local enterprise companies are either smaller than the Scottish regions (the title given to the larger local authority areas in Scotland) or their boundaries coincide with regional boundaries. By mid-1991 virtually all the 82 TECs and the 22 local enterprise companies were operational.

Occupations

2.2.25
One of the main aims of government policy is to increase the standards of competence exercised by those employed in all occupations. This is achieved by a qualification system which identifies occupational competences and the criteria which indicate whether an acceptable standard of performance has been achieved (performance criteria) This identification is undertaken by Lead Bodies for each industry, of which there were some 160 in mid-1991. Many of these are ITOs, but some Lead Bodies (e.g. for office skills) were specially created by the Employment Department (see paragraph 2.3.10 for more details).

Delivery of vocational education and training

2.2.26
Vocational education and training is delivered partly by the further education system through colleges of further education and partly by employers, who may organise their own training, off-the-job or on the job or use facilities offered by local colleges or private training organisations (including ITOs).

2.2.27
A very high proportion of training, including both on-the-job and off-the job and placements for trainees on government programmes, is provided by employers. Employers may provide training for new entrants, for the upgrading of staff, or for the development of new skills as new products or processes are introduced. Because of the absence of any statutory requirement for companies to report on training (or indeed of any precise definition of what constitutes on-the-job training), up-to-date reliable statistics do not exist, but some indication is given in the tables in section 3.2.

2.2.28
In the recession which began in 1990, early reports indicated that the amount training undertaken or bought in by employers was holding up well. However, the position varies between industries, and generally recruitment has fallen off (with a consequent downturn in new entrant training by employers).

2.2.29
The further education system is founded on a distribution of powers between, in England, the Department of Education and Science, and in Wales the Welsh Office, and the Local Education Authorities (LEAs). Briefly, the LEA has responsiblility for ensuring adequate provision and strategic planning, and the Secretary of State has a duty to promote development of national policy and secure its execution by LEAs. Similar arrangements operate in Scotland and Northern Ireland.

2.2.30
Further education is delivered by over 350 colleges of further education. The White Paper *Education and Training for the 21st Century* published in May 1991, announced the Government's intention to introduce legislation to remove further education and sixth form colleges from local education authority control and to create new Further Education Funding Councils (FEFC), with responsibility for funding the further education sector. The English Council will be supported by regional committees.

2.2.31
The Scottish White Paper *Access and Opportunity* announced a similar intention for further education colleges to be established as free-standing corporate bodies but with direct funding by the Scottish Education Department.

2.2.32
The probable effect of these measures will be to relate the colleges more to the boundaries of TECs and lecs than to local authority boundaries although, as noted above, in many cases the TEC/lec boundaries follow those of local authorities.

2.2.33
Most of the colleges of further education are multi-technical institutions, offering courses for a very wide range of occupations and at a number of different levels. Indeed a few offer provision which ranges from the most basic level of skills to post-graduate studies.

2.2.34
The main programmes for young and adult unemployed are run by managing agents and training managers formerly under contract to the Employment Department. These contracts are now being made with the TECs and lecs. At their peak there were some 3500 managing agents and training managers; some of the managing agents were colleges, but many were private sector organisations, or attached to voluntary (often charitable) organisations (eg for the disabled, the disadvantaged in city centres, or rehabilitation of young offenders). Changes in the funding rules, as well as adjustments being made to the programmes themselves by the TECs and lecs, are reducing the number of managing agents and training managers. The Audit Commission has suggested that in Great Britain as a whole the optimum number would be about 500.

2.2.35
In addition, there are a large number of private organisations which specialise in training in small ranges of subjects and at defined trainee levels, particularly in management, computing, driving instruction, languages, hairdressing, catering.

Research

2.2.36
Educational research is undertaken by the National Foundation for Educational Research (NFER) in England and Wales and the Northern Ireland Council for Educational Research (NICER). The Scottish Office Education Department mainly funds research which is related to Government policy. Projects are based in universities, colleges and the Scottish Council for Research in Education (SCRE), as well as a number of other research bodies. In both England and Scotland wide range of research is funded covering both school and post-school education. The number of projects in the latter sector has increased in recent years, though research in the schools sector still predominates.

2.2.37
Research, mostly applied, into aspects of vocational education and training, is carried out or sponsored by the Further Education Unit (FEU), the Scottish Further Education Unit (SFEU), many branches of the Employment Department, NCVQ, SCOTVEC and the major awarding bodies. Some ITBs carried out important research projects, but the ITOs are generally insufficiently resourced to carry forward this tradition. Research projects relevant to their areas have been initiated by many TECs and lecs. Many of the education authorities in all parts of the UK have also undertaken some research in vocational education.

2.2.38
Research into the technology of education and training has been sponsored or carried out by the Learning Technologies Unit of the Employment Department, the National Council for Educational Technology (NCET) and the Scottish Council for Educational Technology (SCET).

2.2.39
The amount of educational and training research in the UK has been large, and has been influential in supporting the many innovations of the last decade. However, there is a lack of coherence, and some duplication, in the research provision, despite considerable efforts to eliminate overlap.

Northern Ireland

2.2.40
From April 1990 the Training and Employment Services of the Department of Economic Development (DED) were established as an executive agency, the Training and Employment Agency, within DED. The agency also took responsibility for the functions of the Northern Ireland Training Authority and a number of the Northern Ireland Industrial Training Boards.

2.2.41
The Agency is encouraging each of the key sectors of industry to form a sector representative body (SRB) which will represent the opinions of employers, and other parties, about individual sectoral training needs. As the ITBs are wound up the SRBs will come into effect. It is also expected that a number of sectors will establish training organisations, which will operate on a commercial basis providing training and assistance within sectors.

2.2.42

The Agency's overall aim is to assist economic growth by ensuring the provision and operation of training and employment services which contribute to Northern Ireland firms becoming more competitive and to individuals obtaining the skills and competences required for increased competitiveness and for securing employment. In pursuit of this aim, the Agency's main objectives are:

- to increase the skills and to encourage employers to develop the abilities and versatility of the Northern Ireland workforce with particular emphasis on management development;
- to provide the unemployed and those seeking to enter the labour market with the skills and abilities with which to find employment;
- to help people seeking work to find jobs and employers to find suitable workers; and
- to provide support for enterprise and inward investment.

2.2.43

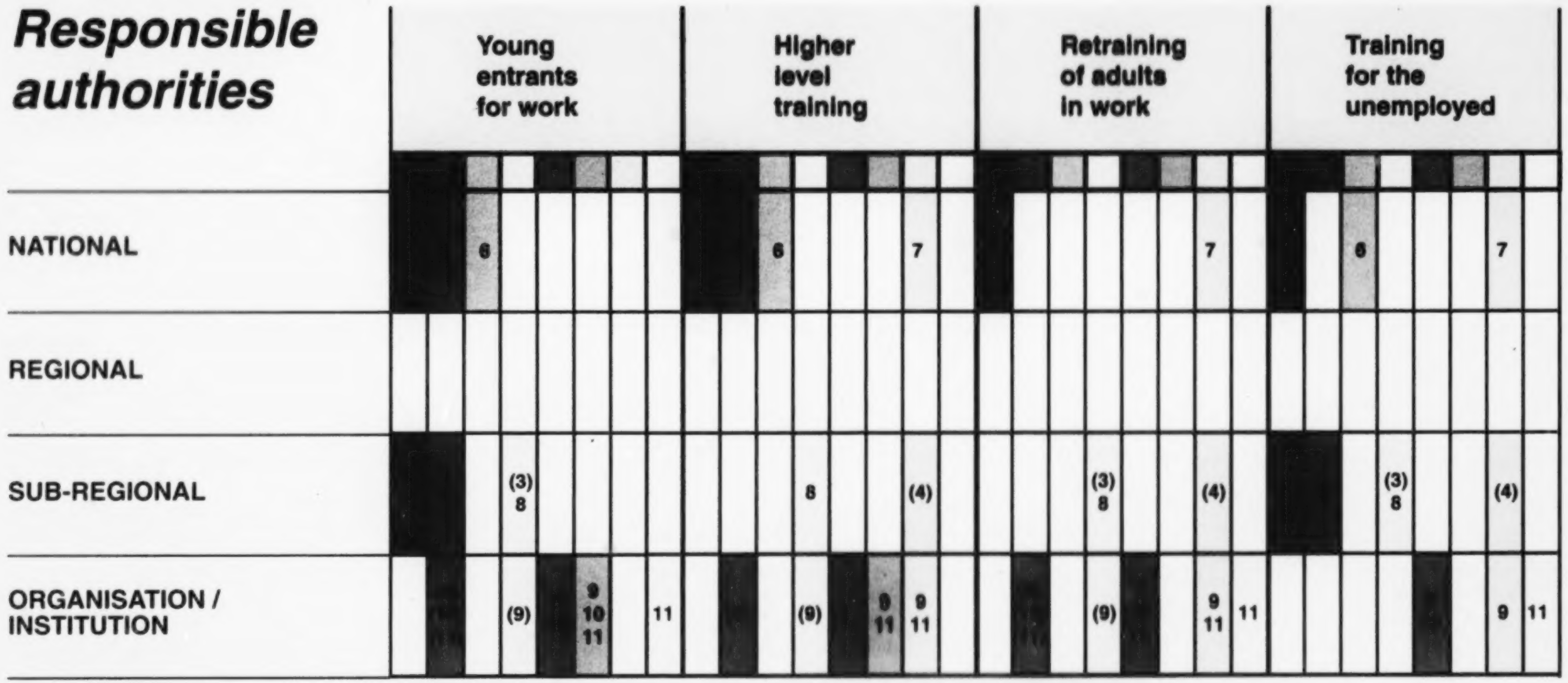
The Agency's network of 12 Training Centres located across Northern Ireland provide off-the-job industrial skills training for young persons and adults.
The centres also provide sponsored training for industry where an individual company identifies a particular training need or problem; a packaged tailored to the company's specific needs can be designed. Subject to the expertise available, this training can be provided in the Training Centre or in-company. As in Great Britain, vocational education and training is provided by some 25 colleges.

Summary of responsible authorities

2.2.44

The diagram on page 41 gives a broad summary of the authorities responsible for different aspects of education and training. A diagram of this nature is inevitably a simplification. It also states the position in early 1992 - for example, in 1993 and following years, TECs and lecs are likely to have greater responsibilities for guidance than implied here.

Responsible authorities


Young entrants for work
Higher level training
Retraining of adults in work
Training for the unemployed
NATIONAL
6
6
7
7
6
7
REGIONAL
SUB-REGIONAL
(3) 8
8
(4)
(3) 8
(4)
(3) 8
(4)
ORGANISATION / INSTITUTION
(9)
9 10 11
11
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11
9
11

1. Department of Employment / Scottish Office / Welsh Office
   Department for Economic Development, Northern Ireland
2. Department for Education / Scottish Office / Welsh Office
   Department for Education for Northern Ireland
3. TECs / lecs
4. LEAs
5. Lead Bodies (often ITOs) for sectors and occupations
6. NCVQ / SCOTVEC / EAVs
7. Open College , Open Polytechnic; other national publishers and providers of Open Learning
8. Careers service
9. Education institutions
10. Private sector training centres
11. Individual firms and organizations

Organisation does not have a major role

█ Regulation of system

▓ Determination of content

▒ Assessment and Certification

☐ Information and Guidance

Delivery:

▓ in education institution or training centre only

▒ alternance and day release

☐ self study

☐ in workplace only

2.3 Vocational qualifications

Introduction

2.3.1
Since the mid-nineteenth century vocational education and training in the UK was largely shaped by the provision of qualifications by awarding bodies and by professional bodies (note that in English 'professional' has a different meaning than in many other EC languages - see Glossary). The delivery of National Vocational Qualifications (NVQs) in England, Wales and Northern Ireland and Scottish Vocational Qualifications (SVQs) in Scotland is a key element in the government's strategy for vocational education and training. Indeed, it is the main unifying factor in a system in which there are many categories of organisation with differing responsibilities. NVQs and SVQs are nationally recognised awards based on statements of competence which have been determined or approved by the lead bodies responsible for setting the standards of competence in employment (see paragraph 2.2.25).

Targets

2.3.2
The Confederation of British Industry (CBI) has used vocational qualifications as the means for setting 'world class targets' for developing skills in the UK workforce. These targets (classified as 'Foundation targets' and 'Lifetime Targets') have been endorsed by the government and so are now official national training targets. Those linked with qualifications are:

- *Foundation Target 1. Immediate moves to ensure that by 1997, at least 80% of all young people attain NVQ/SVQ level 2 or its academic equivalent in their foundation education and training.*

- *Foundation Target 2. All young people who can benefit should be given an entitlement to structured training, work experience or education leading to NVQ/SVQ level 3 or its academic equivalent.*

- *Foundation Target 3. By the year 2000, at least half of the age group should attain NVQ/SVQ level 3 or its academic equivalent, as a basis for further progression.*

- *Lifetime Target 2. By 1996, at least half of the employed workforce should be aiming for qualifications or units towards them within the NVQ/SVQ framework, preferably in the context of individual action plans and with support from employers.*

- *Lifetime Target 3. By the year 2000, 50% of the employed workforce should be qualified to NVQ/SVQ level 3 or its academic equivalent as a minimum.*

2.3.3
At the beginning of 1991 there were five main qualification awarding bodies in England and Wales, and some 300 industrial or professional bodies which also awarded qualifications. NCVQ has the responsibility for maintaining the NVQ framework and for coordinating awarding bodies in England and Wales which contribute to the national system of credit accumulation. In Scotland, the Scottish Vocational Education Council (SCOTVEC) combines the functions of a major awarding body and the accrediting role of NCVQ; some industrial and professional bodies also make awards in Scotland. No NVQ can be awarded without the accreditation of NCVQ, nor an SVQ without that of SCOTVEC.

The NVQ/SVQ Framework

2.3.4
The NVQ Framework is the national structure 'for ordering NVQs according to progressive levels of achievement and areas of competence'. In Scotland a similar framework of Scottish Vocational Qualifications is operated by SCOTVEC. SVQs and NVQs are nationally recognised awards.

NVQs and SVQs have five levels which are not related to the levels established by the European Commission for the purpose of comparability of qualifications. These five levels have been defined (eg. in the Guide to National Vocational Qualifications: March 1991) in a way which is intended to be indicative rather than prescriptive:

> ***Level 1*** *- competence in a significant range of varied work activities, most of which may be routine and predictable.*
>
> ***Level 2*** *- competence in a significant range of varied work activities performed in a variety of contexts. Some of the activities are complex and non-routine, and there is some individual responsibility or autonomy. Collaboration with others, perhaps through membership of a work group or team, may often be a requirement.*
>
> ***Level 3*** *- competence in a broad range of varied work activities performed in a wide variety of contexts and most which are complex and non-routine. There is considerable responsibility and autonomy, and control or guidance of others is often required.*
>
> ***Level 4*** *- competence in a broad range of complex, technical or professional work activities performed in a wide variety of contexts and with a substantial degree of personal responsibility and autonomy. Responsibility for the work of others and the allocation of resources is often present.*
>
> ***Level 5*** *- competence which involves the application of a significant range of fundamental principles and complex techniques across a wide and often unpredictable variety of contexts. Very substantial personal autonomy and often significant responsibility for the work of others and for the allocation of substantial resources feature strongly, as do personal accountability for analysis and diagnosis, design, planning, execution and evaluation.*

2.3.5
NVQs/SVQs are made up of units, which themselves comprise elements of competence, together with range statements (which show the range of situations in which it is expected that particular competences will be exercised), and performance criteria, which provide the basis for assessment.

2.3.6
NVQs/SVQs are based on outcomes, i.e. what the trainee is able to do, and on credit accumulation, so that units of competence can be achieved in a wide range of different ways and over a period of time, and can then be combined into an NVQ/SVQ. None of these three characteristics of NVQs/SVQs (competence-based outcomes, total modularisation and credit accumulation) is new in itself, as all have been features of various qualification and training systems since the late 1960s. The NVQ/SVQ Framework, however, brings together what were previously isolated developments into a single national system of great potential flexibility, capable of being applied to almost any circumstance. For example, because the concentration is on outcomes rather than on how competences were obtained, there is a great deal of interest in the Accreditation of Prior Learning (APL). NVQs/SVQs can be obtained by APL, with an awarding body ready to accept a variety of evidence to show that someone has reached the necessary standards of competence.

2.3.7
NVQs recognise competence in the workplace, with evidence of performance assessed on-the-job, where possible, on an ongoing basis. Where on-the-job assessment is not practicable, assessment by colleges may be a solution. In 1991, the White Paper *Education and Training in the 21st Century* announced the intention to introduce General NVQs (GNVQs): *General NVQs should cover broad occupational areas, and offer opportunities to develop the relevant knowledge and understanding, and to gain an appreciation of how to apply them at work.*

The introduction of GNVQs (and of gSVQs in Scotland) means that it is possible for a student to obtain an NVQ or SVQ without work experience. In early 1992, GNVQ development was sufficiently advanced for implementation in colleges (and some schools) in autumn 1992.

Accreditation

2.3.8
NCVQ has set out fundamental criteria for the accreditation of a qualification as an NVQ. These are that a qualification must be:

- *based on national standards required for performance in employment, and take proper account of future needs with regard to technology, markets and employment patterns;*
- *based on assessments of the outcomes of learning, arrived at independently of any particular mode, duration or location of learning;*
- *awarded on the basis of valid and reliable assessments made in such a way as to ensure that performance to the national standard can be achieved at work;*

- *free from barriers which restrict access and progression, and available to all those who are able to reach the required standard by whatever means;*

- *free from overt or covert discriminatory practices with regard to gender, age, race or creed and designed to pay due regard to the special needs of individuals.*

2.3.9
The SCOTVEC criteria for SVQs are similar but have specific references to 'progression', 'educational needs' and to type of contents stating that SVQs should *be designed to allow breadth of application and reflect needs associated with problem solving, task management, personal effectiveness and the ability to transfer skills and knowledge to new situations.*

Lead bodies

2.3.10
NCVQ and SCOTVEC are the top of the pyramid which regulates training standards through qualifications. At the base of the pyramid are Lead Bodies, which determine (or endorse) agreed statements of competence. Lead Bodies are intended to be led by employers, working with employees (including trade unions) and education and training advisers. In areas where Lead Bodies are concerned with the development of standards for higher level occupations or professions, the appropriate professional bodies will have an important role to play. There are three main types of Lead Body:

- **The industry-specific Lead Body** is in most cases an existing industry training organisation which has a wider remit than the development of standards, e.g. Agriculture Training Board or the Meat Industry Training Organisation. In other cases a Lead Body has been established with the encouragement of the Employment Department specifically for the purpose (e.g. the Museums Training Institute).

- **The consortium** brings together a number of Lead Bodies or other interested parties which are active in similar or overlapping areas to minimise duplication and identify common needs (e.g. the Care Sector Consortium).

- **The cross-sectoral Lead Body** has been established to develop standards in occupations or functions occurring across the full range of employment (e.g. Administrative Lead Body for office workers; Management Charter Initiative for managers; Training and Development Lead Body for trainers).

Awarding Bodies

2.3.11

Between the Lead Bodies and NCVQ, and responsible for arranging the assessment of competence and the award of qualifications, are the awarding bodies. In mid-1991 there were five 'national' ones in England and Wales: Business and Technician Education Council (BTEC); City and Guilds of London Institute (C & G); London Chamber of Commerce and Industry (LCCI); Pitman Examinations Institute (PEI); Royal Society of Arts (RSA). In all there are some 300 awarding bodies if all professional bodies are included, and by late 1991 nearly 100 had qualifications accredited as NVQs.

2.3.12

Some of these bodies are of long standing: the RSA first set examinations in 1852 and City and Guilds in 1879. More recently, in England the Business Education Council and the Technician Education Council were established in th early 1970s; a decade later they merged to form BTEC. Then in 1985 the Scottish Technical Education Council and the Scottish Business Education Council amalgamated to form SCOTVEC. By August 1991 City and Guilds of London Institute had taken over the Pitman Examinations Institute. In 1992 BTEC changed its name to the Business and Technology Education Council, retaining the same initials.

2.3.13

Some of the awarding bodies are very small, and are only able to marry their 'ownership' of standards of competence with the necessary resources required for professional assessment by arranging joint awards with a larger body, such as City and Guilds. It seems likely that this trend towards joint awards will increase.

The delivery of NVQs/SVQs

2.3.14

The logical conclusion of the characteristics of the NVQ/SVQ Framework's is that the process of acquiring competence should be virtually irrelevant to those responsible for the organisation of education and training. This concept has indeed led to considerable interest in ORF - Ouput Related Funding of training - in which grants to training organisations should be based (in part at least) on results. However, given the nature of training delivery, it is not possible to take logic that far. Training allowances or credits (see below) tend to be paid on a time basis, and those responsible for delivering education and training are paid salaries and wages based on the amount of work they do rather than on the achievements of their trainees. It is therefore not possible to eliminate time-based learning from the point of view of those providing such opportunities; this provides tensions with the flexibility of duration and mode which NVQs make possible.

2.3.15

Within institutions themselves there is a greater move towards individualised learning plans and self-paced learning. There are, however, constraints in making institutions almost totally 'roll-on/roll-off', with students able to start when they like, proceed at their own pace and complete when they are able. Above all, the school leaving dates (which, as a result of the White Paper, will soon be reduced to one, in the summer) in England and Wales come at fixed times of the year. The beginning of the academic year at universities and other institutions of higher education is also at a fixed time of year.

2.3.16

In England the management methodology which enables institutions to provide at least some of the flexibility inherent in the NVQ Framework is gradually being developed, but the beginning of the autumn term in 1991 showed that most institutions were still organised on a course basis. There are indeed some advantages in the traditional course structure for young people in their first two years after leaving school. Whether they are in college full-time or part-time, it is often considered correct that they should have a coherent course and not just be aiming at individual modules, as could happen if credit accumulation were taken to its logical conclusion. BTEC, in particular, has been keen to enforce coherence by requiring students to undertake 'cross-modular assignments' on the argument that the real world does not require the exercise of knowledge and competence in small packages, but rather the application of an individual's total knowledge and experience. The White Paper *Education and Training for the 21st Century* seems to have recognised this with the concept of General NVQs.

2.3.17

In Scotland there is more experience to draw on since the modular National Certificate was introduced in 1984. However, institutional versatility is still an issue. The CBI and NCVQ have worked to broaden NVQs to meet future needs and produce adaptable employees. Work on identifying core skills and their integration into NVQs is being undertaken.

2.3.18

Another reason for traditional structures to die slowly is that the NVQ/SVQ Framework is still being developed. By summer 1991 some 300 NVQs had been accredited; a further 500 were expected to be accredited by the end of 1992. In Scotland, aproximately 120 SVQs had been accredited by autumn 1991, with a further 620 timetabled for production by the end of 1992. This is in line with the government's remit to NCVQ, that levels 1-4, covering 80% of the working population, should be fully in place by the end of 1992.

2.3.19

NVQs/SVQs will eventually cover the whole range of vocational occupations, so that there will be a qualification available for anyone in work and, unlike the qualification regime which NCVQ is replacing, all these vocational qualifications will fit within the main Framework.

2.3.20

The Education Reform Act 1988 allows the Secretaries of State for Education and Science and for Wales to approve qualifications for 16-18 year old students. The White Paper *Education and Training for the 21st Century* states that the Secretaries of State will use these reserve powers to ensure that colleges and schools offer only NVQs and General NVQs (or units or modules which are part of them) to students following vocational options. The intention is that colleges and awarding bodies should be encouraged to replace older-style vocational qualifications with NVQs as soon as possible. While NVQs/SVQs are being developed the previous qualifications are still on offer, and it will be many years before the whole workforce holds qualifications under the new system.

2.3.21

The Scottish White Paper Access and Opportunity invited SCOTVEC to develop a range of broadly based qualifications relevant to further education, training and employment which do not necessarily demonstrate the full range of competencies necessary for a particular occupation. These broader qualifications are being developed under the SVQ framework and are known as General SVQs. SCOTVEC is working closely with NCVQ in the development of General SVQs/NVQs to ensure both qualifications are broadly comparable. SCOTVEC is also responsible for qualifications, especially the National Certificate, which are outside the SVQ framework.

2.3.22

The full implementation of NVQs/SVQs and the exploitation in the interests of students and their employers of the flexibility which they offer, requires substantial changes in the way in which colleges are run. The leading organisations which provide the necessary experimentation and advice for college staff are the Further Education Unit in England and Wales, and the Scottish Further Education Unit in Scotland. Management training for college staff is provided nationally by The Staff College (formerly The Further Education Staff College).

Northern Ireland

2.3.23

Northern Ireland largely uses the vocational qualifications available in England and Wales, but in some cases those awarded by SCOTVEC are preferred.

2.4 Education and initial vocational training

Secondary education: England and Wales

2.4.1
Compulsory education lasts until 16 years of age throughout the UK. Secondary schools usually admit pupils aged 11 years.

2.4.2
In England and Wales, over 90% of secondary pupils attend comprehensive schools, which admit pupils without reference to ability or aptitude and provide a wide range of secondary education for all or most of the children of a district.

2.4.3
In addition, the Education Reform Act 1988 provided for the setting up of City Technology Colleges in order to extend choice of school locally, and to pioneer new approaches to delivery of the curriculum. They are required to offer free education to pupils of all abilities accepted from within their catchment areas. They are funded by central government directly and by industrial sponsors, but very few had been established by the end of 1991.

2.4.4
As a result of the Education Reform Act 1988, all maintained schools in England and Wales must provide a basic curriculum, a major innovation for the UK. This curriculum must include:

a) religious education for all pupils (except those withdrawn by their parents);

b) the National Curriculum, comprising:
  - core subjects - mathematics, English, science. (In schools in Wales which are Welsh-speaking, Welsh is a core subject).

  - other foundation subjects - technology, history, geography, art, music, physical education, plus - for pupils aged 11-16 - a modern foreign language.

2.4.5
For each National Curriculum subject, there are attainment targets defining what pupils should know, understand, and be able to do by the end of 'four key' stages, plus programmes of study showing the ground to be covered. The key stages cover the ages 5-7, 7-11, 11-14, 14-16; assessment at the end of each stage is reported in 10 grades, of which 10 is the highest.

2.4.6
The main external examination available to pupils at the end of lower secondary - the General Certificate of Secondary Education (GCSE) - is offered by five separate examining groups in England and Wales. Candidates may take as few or as many subjects as they like. The examination is taken at 16 (earlier if the candidate is ready) and candidates are awarded one of seven grades (A-G). There is a programme to bring GCSEs and the National Curriculum closer together and by 1994 GCSE results will be reported in the same 10 grades as the National Curriculum. The table below summarises the qualifications of school leavers in 1989/90.

Pupils (boys and girls) leaving school 1989/90 by country and higher qualification held

	England	Wales	Scotland	NI	UK
1. Leavers with GCE A levels/SCE H Grades					
a) 2 or more A, 3 or more H passes	116	6	17	7	146
b) 1 A, 1 or 2 H passes	22	2	9	-	33
2. Leavers with GCSE, SCE standard grades or equivalent*					
a) 5 or more A-C awards or equivalent*	81	4	5	3	93
b) 1-4 A-C awards or equivalent*	158	8	16	6	190
c) 5 or more other grades	92	9	2	5	94
d) 1-4 other grades	64		14		
e) No GCSE/SCE or equivalent*	44	5	7	3	60
3. Total school leavers	578	35	68	24	706

* includes GCE O-levels, CSE/SCE O grades and excludes those counted in category 1.

NB Because of rounding, figures do not cross-check exactly.

Source: Education Statistics of the United Kingdom 1991

The following table provides a comparison with other Community Member States.

Proportion concerned per thousand of age-group obtaining secondary qualifications and entering higher education

	Obtaining Secondary Qualifications	Entering Higher Education	Obtaining Secondary Qualifications	Entering Higher Education
	1987/88		1988/89	
B	510	493	510[2]	493[2]
DK	713	434	759	477[5]
F	340	344	367	442
D	284[1]	296[1]	284[1]	320[5]
GR	485[1]	328[1]	485[1]	328[1]
IRL		288[1,2]	766[6]	325[3]
I	357	269	357[2]	269[2]
L	—	—	532	—
NL	527	394	519	360
P	—	—	—	—
E	353	347	353[2]	384
UK	366[4]	347	398[4]	374

Source: OECD in Figures, 1991 and 1992 editions

Notes:

1. 1986 / 1987
2. 1987 / 1988
3. Full-time only
4. School-leavers with at least five A-C GCE 0-levels or equivalent (i.e. general or business and Technical Educational Council certificate and diploma are considered eligible for higher education
5. includes new entrants in post-graduate programmes
6. includes all students sitting upper secondary exam. Entrance to higher education is based on performance in the Leaving Certificate.

2.4.7

Young people over the age of 16 have a number of education and training options open to them. They may stay on in the school sixth form, or they may transfer to a sixth form college, a tertiary college (ie. one which combines all post-compulsory, non-degree, education in one institution) or a college of further education, depending on the system operated in the area they live in. Alternatively they may choose to join Youth Training (see sections 2.4.33 - 2.4.42), or take a job which may or may not provide training.The table below summarises the educational and economic activities of 16-18 year olds in 1990.

Educational and economic activities of 16 - 18 year olds in 1990

	Males	Females	Total
Population (thousands)	1223	1163	2386
Percentage of age group			
In full-time education. - total	34	39	36
of which			
School	19	20	19
Further education	11	15	13
Higher education	4	4	4
On YTS	18	11	15
Other (Incl. unemployed and those in employment outside YTS)	48	49	49
of which in part-time day education (included in employed/unemployed)	10	4	7

Source: Education Statistics for the United Kingdom 1991

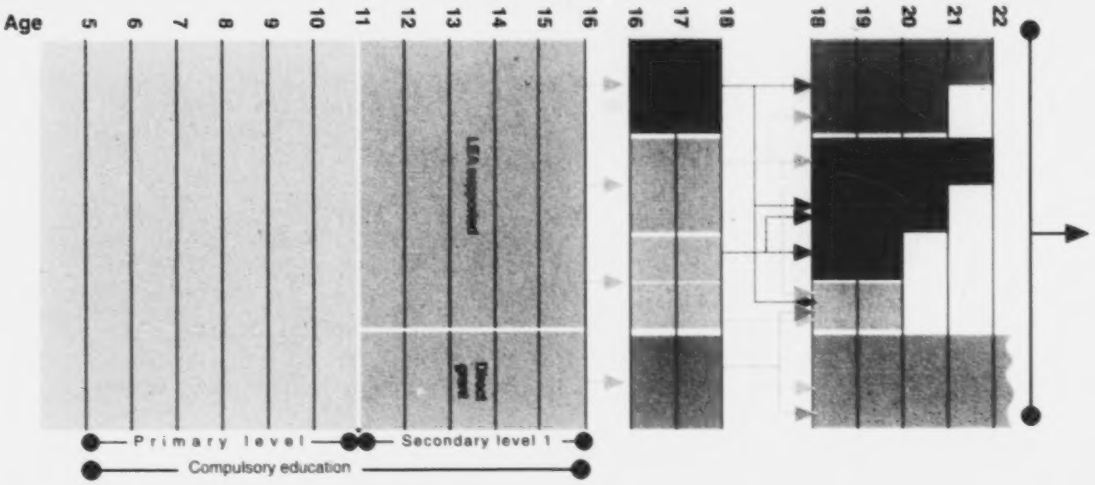
2.4.8

Pupils who are likely to go on to university or other higher education courses usually study subjects to GCE A level (Advanced level of the General Certification of Education), the main external examination offered in schools at upper secondary level. A levels are often criticised for being too narrow in content terms. This led to the introduction in 1989 of supplementary subjects (AS levels) which intended to have half the content of an A level, but be of the same level of difficulty, thus enabling a pupil to study two in the same time. However, AS levels have not yet gained wide acceptance.

2.4.9
Pupils in the upper secondary phase may also take examinations leading to other qualifications, generally of a pre-vocational or vocational nature, awarded for example by the Business and Technology Education Council (BTEC), City and Guilds of London Institute (C&G), Pitman Examinations Institute (PEI), the Royal Society of Arts (RSA) or the London Chamber of Commerce and Industry (LCCI). CPVE (Certificate of Pre-Vocational Education), introduced in 1985, gives pupils over statutory school leaving age the opportunity to sample different vocational areas within an activity-based learning programme.

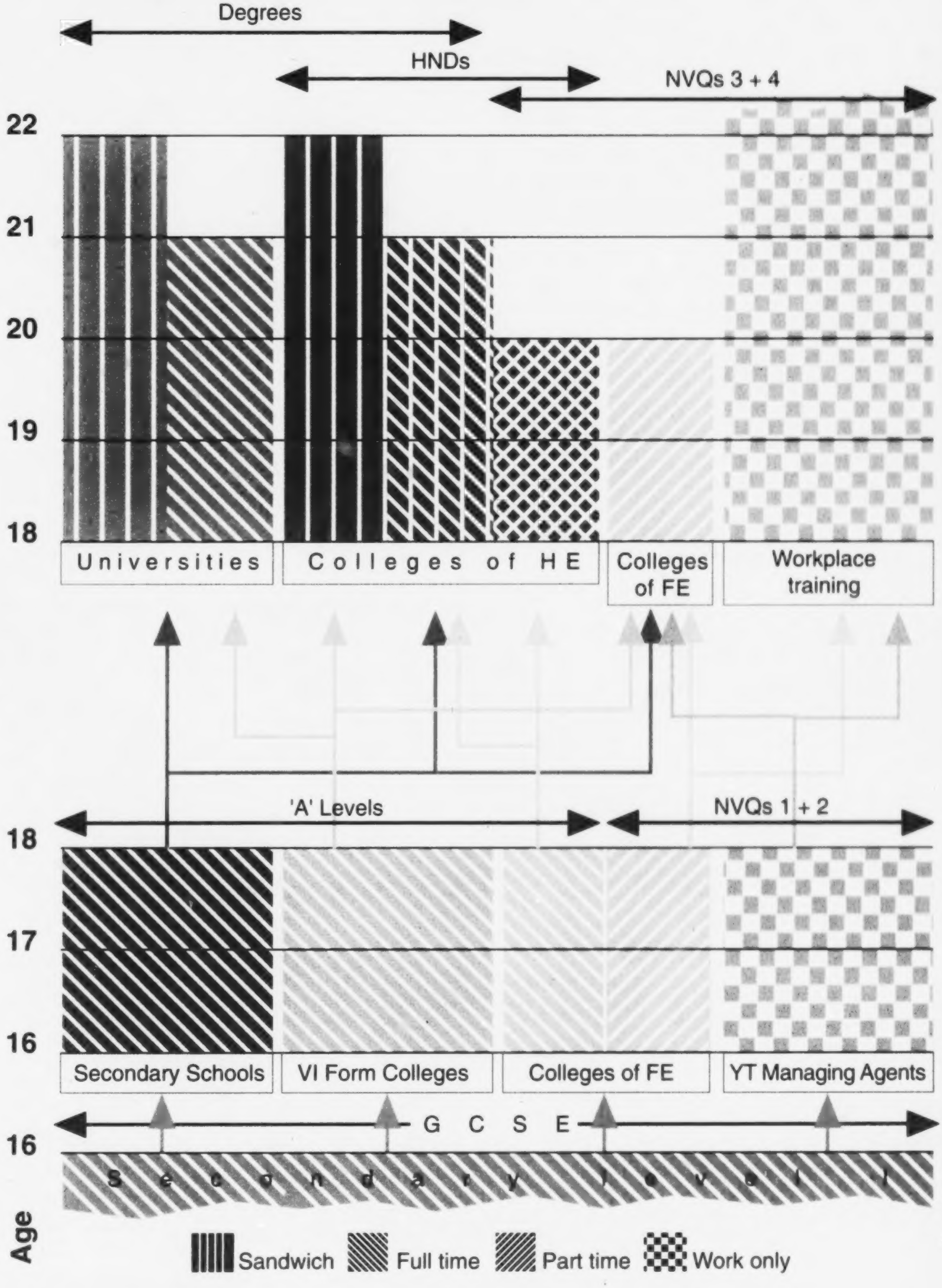
2.4.10
The government wants academic and vocational qualifications to be held in equal esteem. The White Paper *Education and Training for the 21st Century* states that the government, following wide consultation, intends to establish a new system of ordinary and advanced diplomas which enable students to combine GCSEs and vocational qualifications at age 15/16 or A levels, AS levels and vocational qualifications at age 17/18. At the same time the government wants to increase the number of school students studying for vocational qualifications, permitting BTEC lower level Diplomas to be offered from September 1991, and increasing the rigour of CPVE so that it offers a suitable route to higher level qualifications. The White Paper also heralded the introduction of General NVQs which, though primarily aimed at full-time students in colleges, would be suitable in some cases for school pupils over the statutory leaving age. (See paragraph 2.3.7)

Overview of the structure of education and training in the UK



* Age of entry to secondary education varies

Main routes in Vocational Education, Training and Higher Education in England and Wales


Degrees
HNDs
NVQs 3 + 4
22
21
20
19
18
Universities
Colleges of HE
Colleges of FE
Workplace training
'A' Levels
NVQs 1 + 2
18
17
16
Secondary Schools
VI Form Colleges
Colleges of FE
YT Managing Agents
GCSE
16
Secondary level
Age
Sandwich
Full time
Part time
Work only

Notes: 1) The systems in Scotland and Northern Ireland are similar, but not identical.
2) This is a simplified presentation of the system: colour blocks are not proportional.

Secondary education: Scotland

2.4.11
In Scotland, secondary education usually begins at about 12 years of age. All secondary schools under the management of education authorities have a comprehensive intake.

2.4.12
At lower secondary level in the four last years of compulsory education, the curriculum is divided into two stages, each lasting two years.

2.4.13
Unlike in England, where a 'core curriculum' is now mandatory, the Scottish curriculum is not prescribed by law except in respect of religious education and Gaelic speaking areas. Education authorities and head teachers in theory have considerable freedom to decide what courses should be available in any individual schools. All schools are, nevertheless, expected to follow certain guiding principles recommended by the Secretary of State on the advice of the Scottish Consultative Committee on the Curriculum.

2.4.14
The first two years of secondary education are regarded as an exploratory period during which the progress of each pupil is carefully observed and pupils are given a wide variety of subjects so that they can find out where their particular aptitude, abilities and interests lie.

2.4.15
At the end of their second year, decisions are taken as to what subjects will be followed and although some selection of subjects may be necessary at this stage, the general aim is to maintain a well-balanced curriculum for all pupils in which each of the different modes of learning is represented. Whatever structure of curriculum is adopted, the government regards it as essential that English, mathematics and science are studied by all pupils. The government's intention is that a modern foreign language should join those subjects by 1992.

2.4.16
The academic examination for lower secondary pupils in Scotland is the Standard Grade Certificate, which takes into account performance in examinations and the school's own assessment of pupils.

2.4.17
In post-compulsory fifth and sixth years, pupils are offered a wide curricular choice. At the heart of the curriculum are the courses leading to the Scottish Certificate Examination at Higher Grade, which serves as an entry qualification to higher education. It is usually taken at age 17. A Certificate of Sixth Year Studies can be taken in up to a maximum of 3 subjects by pupils who have obtained 'Highers' in the subjects concerned.

2.4.18
The Scottish National Certificate, which was introduced in 1984, is validated by the Scottish Vocational Education Council (SCOTVEC). It provides about 2700 modular courses to pupils who have completed the four compulsory years of secondary education (although they may be taken earlier, particularly in TVEI programmes (see below). The number of students per annum attempting at least one SCOTVEC module now exceeds 200,000, with module registrations totalling more than one million in 1990-91.

2.4.19
The modules are normally taken alongside general subjects being studied at Higher Grade. National Certificate modules are also undertaken by young people or adults in further education colleges, community education, private training centres or in employers' training provision. They provide opportunities for progression to courses in higher education through the Scottish Wider Access Programme (SWAP) and to certain advanced examinations of some professional bodies. Their flexibility makes it possible to provide a mix of subject areas depending on what is available locally and on the need for employment or registration requirements. The 40-hour modules cover all the major occupational areas in Scotland as well as subjects such as foreign languages and personal and social development. Modules can also be gained through the Accreditation of Prior Learning (APL) process.

TVEI

2.4.20
The Technical and Vocational Education Initiative (TVEI), which was started as a pilot in 1983, and extended nationally from 1987, is a major government scheme, funded and administered by the Employment Department and the Scottish Office Industry Department. It is complementary to the objectives of the National Curriculum, and has been extended to all local education authorities.

2.4.21
TVEI aims to make the curriculum of 14-18 year olds - at school or college - more relevant to adult and working life. It adopts a practical, problem-solving approach to learning, and encourages the use of new technology throughout the curriculum. The programme suits all ability levels, and tries to break down sex-stereotyping in choice of subject. Other positive results have been the development of new types of teaching and learning, increased uses of information technology, the provision of work experience, and the formation of effective business/education partnerships, in which industry may, for example, get directly involved in curriculum planning and delivery. A DES report *TVEI - England and Wales 1983-1990* described TVEI as 'the largest curriculum development project founded and administered by central government', and noted that 'well-targeted funding is an effective means of bringing about change'.

2.4.22

TVEI programmes are designed and managed by individual local education authorities (or by grant maintained schools) in line with their own strategies and circumstances, but their proposals must meet nationally agreed TVEI criteria. Present targets are for all authorities to have had schemes running by 1992

Compacts

2.4.23

The Employment Department also funds Compacts, agreements between employers, young people, schools and colleges in some local education authorities. Employers guarantee a job with training, or training leading to a job for every participating young person who has achieved a set of agreed personal and educational goals and objectives (attendance, academic achievements, etc). Every school and college involved undertakes to support and encourage young people in the achievement of standards and competences. In 1991 Compacts covered over 92,000 young people, nearly 500 schools and colleges and about 9,000 employers guaranteeing over 25,000 jobs. The White Papers expect a large extension of Compacts, but employment guarantees are sometimes proving difficult to honour in the recession.

Secondary education: Northern Ireland

2.4.24

There are two main types of school: grammar and secondary schools. Grammar schools provide a range of courses for pupils between 11 and 18 years old, while secondary schools provide a similar range of courses for the 11-16 age group, although some secondary schools offer post-16 opportunities. Grammar schools can select pupils on the basis of academic ability. Until assessment at age 11 is introduced, verbal reasoning-type tests will continue to be used as an assessment of academic ability. The grade obtained in the test can be used by a grammar school when deciding whether or not to admit a pupil.

2.4.25

The Northern Ireland equivalent to the Education Reform Act, the Education Reform (NI) Order 1989, provides for a common curriculum for pupils in grant-aided schools, with associated formal assessment of pupils at four specified stages against specified attainment targets. In addition to religious education, the curriculum of all children of compulsory school age (other than those in independent schools) will be required to include five areas of study (six in secondary schools):

- English
- mathematics
- science and technology
- the environment and society
- creative and expressive studies
- language studies (secondary and Irish-speaking schools only).

Within each area of study, at least one subject will be compulsory during certain years of compulsory schooling.

2.4.26
Every pupil will be formally assessed, through centrally-determined arrangements, at ages 8, 11, 14 and 16 in the compulsory subjects.

2.4.27
In addition, a number of 'educational' or 'cross-curricular' themes will be included in the curriculum for all schools. These are not separate subjects but will be woven through the main subjects of the curriculum. The themes are:

- education for mutual understanding
- cultural heritage
- health education
- information technology
- economic awareness
- careers education.

2.4.28
At the end of compulsory school age most pupils sit the General Certificate of Secondary Education examination (GCSE). In the two years after this, most pupils staying at school follow GCE A level courses (paragraph 2.4.8). Standards in Northern Ireland examinations are generally comparable with those in England and Wales.

Careers guidance

2.4.29
In England and Wales careers guidance is provided to school pupils by careers teachers and also by the Careers Service, which is run by local education authorities. During the 1980s the Careers Service increasingly took responsibility for careers guidance for adults.

2.4.30
The White Paper Education and Training for the 21st Century stated the government intention that, building on existing good practice, the Careers Service should raise its standards, draw even closer to employers, help TECs build up employer commitment to training, and encourage more young people to take up education and training opportunities and aim for higher qualifications.

2.4.31
A change in the law (which currently makes LEAs statutorily resonsible for providing a Careers Service and for operating it through their own staff) may be required to provide new options for the management of the Careers Service, e.g. directly by TECs, jointly between LEAs and TECs, or contracting out the service to the private sector through competitive tendering. *Education and Training for the 21st Century* stated that the government will take reserve powers to require LEAs to put their Careers Service out to tender if experience shows this to be a good way of managing the service. The government thus expects that the Careers Service would be run in different ways in different places, reflecting local needs. In particular, LEAs and TECs are being encouraged through pump-priming funding jointly to oversee the running of the Careers Service.

2.4.32
In Scotland the Careers Service is also provided by education authorities. In late 1991 the government was holding consultations on the best way of providing a strengthened role for employers in the organisation of the service.

Youth Training

2.4.33
The management of the main initial vocational training programme, Youth Training, has been transferred from the Employment Department to the Training and Enterprise Councils (TECs) and to local enterprise companies (lecs) in Scotland.

2.4.34
Youth Training (YT) offers a guarantee of up to two years vocational training for young people not in employment or full-time education from the end of compulsory schooling through to the age of 18. Eligibility for YT (as opposed to the guarantee) is up to the 25th birthday, and YT can also cover young people in employment. YT provides broad based vocational training both on the job and off the job, and planned work experience, and enables trainees (with some exceptions for young people with special training needs) to work towards a qualification equivalent at least to Level 2 in the frameworks established by NCVQ and SCOTVEC. Completion of an individual's training plan may take more than two years, especially where the aim is to obtain qualifications at Level 3 or even Level 4.

2.4.35
YT is delivered through contracts with independent training providers (often private employers) and is based on the achievement of NVQs/SVQs. TECs and lecs are now free to develop and deliver patterns and mixes of training best suited to enabling young people to gain qualifications. There is no obligation to maintain the previous national design framework. TECs and lecs may develop hybrid training and education arrangements, for example part-time training/part-time education funded as a total package. All arrangements must meet minimum requirements and lead to NVQs/SVQs or their equivalents.

2.4.36
In addition to occupationally-based training and job-related skills, training programmes may include induction and assessment (usually 13 to 17 weeks), off-the-job training/education, as well as guidance support, health and safety, and review of progress and certification. There are special provisions for trainees with disabilities.

2.4.37
On completion of training, YT trainees are given a National Record of Achievement; this provides a personal record of what the trainees have achieved during YT, enabling them to demonstrate their abilities for further education or training or to future employers, including the vocational qualifications they have acquired.

2.4.38
The following table shows the numbers entering YTS (Youth Training Scheme - the precursor to YT) or YT in comparison with 16 and 17 year old school leavers entering the labour market.

YTS and YT in relation to young entrants to the labour market (000s)

	1987/88	*1988/89*	*1989/90 (Estimate)*
16 and 17 year olds entering labour market	557	525	497
Numbers joining YTS / YT	328 (59%)	315 (60%)	281 (56,5%)

Source: Skills and Enterprise Briefing 1991

2.4.39
Young people on YTS increasingly obtained employee status, rising from 17.1% of trainees in June 1988 to 22.3% in March 1989 and 32.6% in March 1990.

2.4.40
There were significant regional differences in the share of YTS. The North West accounted for 15.5% of all trainees in training in 1988/89 (14.9% in 1990) compared with London which accounted for 5.4% (5.7%). The proportion of women in training ranged from 24.3% (33.8% in 1990) of trainees in London to 39.5% (39.2%) of trainees in the West Midlands. There was a large difference in the levels of employees - from only 13% (19% in 1990) of trainees in Northern region to 33% (44%) of trainees in the South East. The average across all regions in 1988/89 was 22% (33%).

2.4.41
In Northern Ireland, the Youth Training Programme (YTP) provides a two year programme aimed at all to 16 and 17 year-old school leavers combining training, further education and work experience in the first year and either employment with training or more specialised full-time training in the second year.

2.4.42
While in England and Wales YT is mainly employer-led, YTP is organised by Training Centres, Community Workshops, Further Education Colleges and the Training and Employment Agency's Training Centre network, in cooperation with employers providing work experience places. From April 1990, providers have had to apply for Recognised Training Organisation (RTO) status by demonstrating that they meet quality standards. RTOs will manage two years of training for young people in or out of work.

2.4.43
Entrants to the world of work following courses leading to qualifications, are often given one day a week release by their employer to attend a college. This approach to part-time vocational education, which is well enshrined in the UK tradition (and was virtually made a compulsory prerequisite for obtaining grants from ITBs when they existed) is most succcessful when it is based on a partnership between the college and the employer aimed at a coherent training programme. Models of such partnerships have been described in a research project undertaken by SCOTVEC as follows:

- the 'shared delivery' model, in which the college and the employer's personnel each have their own distinct areas of responsibility within a jointly-planned training programme;

- the 'contracted-out' model, in which the employer contracts the college to deliver a pre-defined programme;

- the 'umbrella' model, in which the college coordinates a programme involving a number of different employers or places of work;

- the 'flexible training' model, in which the college provides support for open learning and work-based learning;

- the 'college as industry training centre' model, in which the college acts as the training centre for a particular employer or industrial organisation.

2.4.44
Although NVQs and SVQs are expressed in terms of outcomes and are meant to be divorced from the length of study, the traditions of part-time education still prevail, with courses leading to qualifications mostly taking two years, although often one or three years. For example, a BTEC technician student would often study two years part-time to National Certificate and, if successful, might then be given a further two years part-time study by his or her employer, leading to the Higher National Certificate. Students studying for 'craft level' engineering, catering or office qualifications followed similar, but more diverse, patterns of attendance. The NVQ/SVQ framework allows for infinite variety of attendance patterns, and for different relationships between college study and training at work, but it seems likely that existing patterns of attendance will remain for some time.

2.4.45
In recent years there has been an increase in full-time vocational education, especially in business and office studies, and in subjects such as catering where full training can be given in a simulated industrial setting. Full-time students are frequently supported by their parents, as LEA grants at this level are of limited availability. The demand for full-time vocational education somewhat naturally tends to rise in times of recession. One of the side effects of the increase in full-time education is the pressure on college resources, especially where these had been developed for handling different groups of students on each day of the week.

2.4.46
The DES Statistical Bulletin: Further Education Students in England 1970/71 to 1989 indicates:

- *Further education enrolments more than doubled between 1975/76 to 1990/91 with numbers registered at 1 November each year rising from 900,000 to an estimated over 2 million. Over the same period further education full-time and sandwich students increased by 80%.*

- *About 36% of 16 year olds and 33% of 17 year olds were enrolled in further education 1989/90, more than received education in schools at the same ages. Nearly half of the further education enrolments at these ages were part-time.*

- *Further education provided nearly 80% of all part-time education for students aged 18 and over, and about 20% of full-time education.*

- *About one-third of full-time further education students studied for a BTEC qualification, and over 60% studied for an identified vocational qualification. Only 40% of part-time students studied for an identified vocational qualification.*

- *The most popular specified subject to study was Business Administration, which accounted for a fifth of all enrolments, although Engineering and Technology was most popular with men.*

- *Women accounted for 56% of all enrolments, but the proportion varied from 61% on courses under one year to 45% on courses lasting two years or more.*

2.4.47
In 1990/91 six out of ten 16 year olds stayed on in full-time education compared with four out of ten in 1979.

Training Credits

2.4.48
Within the framework of Youth Training, in 1991 the government supported eleven pilot schemes for Training Credits. A Training Credit is a voucher representing an entitlement to training to Level 2 or Level 3 NVQs/SVQs, the costs of which are met by the TEC/lec. Different TECs have adopted different models; in some, credits vary according to the cost of training: others have a fixed money value, ranging in value from GBP 750 to almost GBP 5000 per young person on vocational education and training. To enable young people to make the most effective use of their credits they receive special guidance from their local careers service. The main feature of the Training Credits is that public funding is routed through the individual young person rather than through a training provider. The aim is:

- *to increase young people's motivation to train by giving them choice and control, and showing them the scale of investment available to support their training;*

- *to make training provision more market-oriented because providers are paid according to their ability to attract trainees with credits;*

- *to increase the number of employers, particularly smaller employers, offering structured training to young people.*

2.4.49

The initial reports from the eleven pilot TECs and lecs are that the Training Credit schemes have attracted enthusiastic support from employers, young people, trainers and teachers. The White Paper *Education and Training for the 21st Century* stated the government's intention to extend Training Credits to all 16 and 17 year-olds who leave full-time education by 1996. A further nine local schemes will be in operation from April 1993.

Vocationally-oriented higher education

2.4.50

Much of higher education in the UK is vocationally-oriented. It includes:

- Traditional degrees in vocational subjects (such as architecture or engineering) at universities. In some cases, these degrees are organised on a sandwich basis over four or five years, of which one or two year is spent in industry or commerce. The organisation of this year varies.

- Degree courses at polytechnics and institutions of higher education, most of which are currently validated by the Council for National Academic Awards (CNAA). However, the White Paper *Higher Education: a New Framework* approved proposals to introduce legislation which will extend degree-awarding powers to polytechnics and some other institutions and allow polytechnics to adopt the title of university. Non-degree awarding institutions will seek an institution of their choice to validate their courses. The CNAA will be dissolved, although some of its services - for example in relation to credit accumulation and transfer and the recognition of access courses - will be carried on by other bodies after its demise.

- The Higher National Certificates and Higher National Diplomas of BTEC and SCOTVEC are available in a wide range of institutions, and in some cases by open learning. Normally these are studied in the first few years after leaving school, either following a BTEC or SCOTVEC National Certificate or Diploma, or with direct entry from school leaving at 18. However, they can also be studied by adults. Typically an HNC takes two years part-time and an HND three years, although there are still a number of full-time or sandwich HND courses. SCOTVEC's Advanced Courses Development Programme aims to provide a new system of advanced courses which are competence based, modular in structure, flexible and responsive to needs.

- New-Higher National Units are being phased in and the system is expected to be fully implemented for all occupational areas by 1992. The reform of SCOTVEC's HNC/HND qualifications will raise participation levels as units can be taken and built up to achieve HNC or HND, thereby easing transition and enabling more people to participate in higher education.
- Courses leading to membership of a professional body, which remains an important goal for many students.
- Short courses for continuing education and training (see section 2.5).

2.4.51
In 1987/88 44.1 thousand students were studying for professional body qualifications in public sector institutions, 14.0 thousand for BTEC Higher Diplomas, and 18.2 thousand for BTEC Higher Certificates, and 3.1 thousand for SCOTVEC Higher National Diplomas or Certificates.

2.5 Continuing vocational education and training

Background

2.5.1
In the UK there is no legal right to educational leave for continuing education, but there is a long tradition of adults learning. There are, in fact, two separate traditions: non-vocational general education for adults, and job-related continuing vocational education.

2.5.2
In the post-war years, the non-vocational adult educational movement acted as a powerful pressure group for government provision. Its influence contributed to the founding of the Open University, and the success of that institution strengthened the non-vocational movement. Courses covering a multitude of interests are offered at subsidised rates, with take-up estimated at three million a year.

2.5.3
The vocational tradition, which led adults to study in their own time for professional and vocational qualifications and in the same institutions as young people fresh from school, suffered a set-back between the late 1950s and the mid-1970s as the provision for job-related evening classes dwindled. This was partly because vocational education for entrants to industry became focused on day release, and partly because of changes in conditions of service for college staff.

2.5.4
However the structural changes in courses, particularly the modularisation of vocational education courses at technician and similar levels from the mid-1970s, made it easier to relate continuing education for adults to vocational qualifications. The effect of the NCVQ policies will be to ensure that all vocational qualifications are available on a modular basis, and that the higher levels will be of similar status to membership of professional institutions (except where this has become entirely graduate level).

Policy

2.5.5
The Government has stated that it attaches great importance to the further education of adults. Under the terms of the White Paper *Education and Training for the 21st Century*, the statutory duty to secure provision of all kinds of further education and training for adults will in future be divided between the new Further Education Funding Councils and Local Education Authorities. And within their respective duties, the councils and local education authorities will each be required to take account of students with special educational needs.

2.5.6
The Funding Councils will support a very wide range of provision. This will include courses leading to academic and vocational qualifications; courses enabling adults to gain access to higher level courses; basic skills courses - that is, literacy and numeracy; courses to develop proficiency in English as a Second Language and, in Wales, proficiency in Welsh.

2.5.7
The government's priorities thus go a good deal wider than the purely vocational. But recreational and leisure courses will also still have a significant place within the further education of adults. Local education authorities will retain the duty to secure the provision of all types of education falling outside the scope of the Funding Councils. Such education largely takes the form of courses which do not lead to qualifications and which may be of a more informal kind. It meets the leisure interests of adults and can serve other purposes, e.g. providing a stepping-stone to more formal study .

2.5.8
In recognition of the duty which local education authorities will retain, the government will continue to provide support for recreational and leisure courses. LEAs will therefore retain, within standard spending, resources attributable to recreational and leisure courses. The intention is that LEAs will continue to be able to support such courses as they do now, responding to demand and taking account of the ability of students to pay fees.

Implementation

2.5.9
There are seven main lines of continuing vocational education and training:

- the Employment Training programme (paragraphs 2.5.10 - 2.5.16)
- the PICKUP programme (paragraphs 2.5.17 - 2.5.18)
- Continuous Professional Development (paragraph 2.5.19)
- Enterprise training (paragraphs 2.5.20 - 2.5.23)
- open and flexible training (paragraphs 2.5.24 - 2.5.31)
- in-company training (paragraphs 2.5.32 - 2.5.34)
- miscellaneous provisions (including women returners, infilling secondary classes, access courses, adult literacy). (paragraphs 2.5.35 - 2.5.40)

Employment Training

2.5.10
During the early 1980s a number of training programmes for the long-term unemployed were developed. In 1988, these were brought together into a single programme, Employment Training. Those who have been unemployed for six months are offered interviews and are helped to find either work or a training place. Anyone aged 18-59 who has been unemployed for six months is eligible for Employment Training; priority is given to those out of work for 6-12 months or for more than two years, or with disabilities. Certain other groups are also eligible regardless of their length of unemployment (e.g. those with literacy and numeracy needs) and some do not have to be defined as unemployed (e.g. returners to the labour market).

2.5.11
Those who enter Employment Training are given a training allowance, in 1991 equal to their weekly unemployment benefit entitlement plus GBP 10 (14 ECU) per week, and it is possible for TECs to obtain help with travel, lodging, child care and other costs associated with training. Each person who joins Employment Training

is given an individual Training Plan by the training provider. If the training provider offers employment during the course of Employment Training the training can still be continued.

2.5.12
It is estimated that there were about 139,000 trainees on Employment Training in November 1991. The follow-up results for the period April 1990 to March 1991 show that 48% of all leavers had completed their agreed training. Some 39% of those who completed their agreed training, and 32% of those who did not, were in a job or undergoing further training three months after leaving ET.

2.5.13
Employment Training has been controversial for a number of reasons. Some have thought that the allowance is aimed to create cheap labour, and as a result some local authorities and trade unions have refused to support it. This dispute between the government and the unions was one of the factors which led to the abolition of the Manpower Services Commission and the responsibility for the organisation of training in the UK being moved into the Employment Department itself.

2.5.14
ET's low success rate in placing people in jobs has also attracted criticism. However, the basic problem which ET was designed to tackle is a very difficult one. Many unemployed people have failed to find work because they are not adequately qualified for the level of jobs which are available.

2.5.15
At the same time, the long-term unemployed not only include those who genuinely want to find new employment, but also many who have severe personal difficulties and special training needs (perhaps exacerbated by unemployment) which make the task of retraining them even harder.

2.5.16
Employment Training is now administered by TECs and lecs, which should enable local solutions to be found to some of these problems. TECs and lecs have the power to vary the way in which ET funding is spent in order to meet the realities of the local labour market. By autumn 1991, however, there was insufficient evidence to make judgements as to whether this approach was likely to be substantially more successful than the previous national approach.

PICKUP

2.5.17
The PICKUP (Professional, Industrial and Commercial Updating) programme provides training for those in employment. The main aim of this programme, managed by the DES in England and Wales and by Scottish Enterprise in Scotland, has been to encourage public sector institutions, whether universities, polytechnics or colleges, to offer short updating courses for adults in employment. Since the programme started in 1982 it has generated a very large number of updating courses. Because these may be very short, statistics are difficult to come by, but the DES estimate is that there were 940,000 recorded enrolments to PICKUP training during 1989.

2.5.18
Although PICKUP provision itself is usually self-financing from course fees, funding for its development is provided through various schemes. In 1990-91 the total funding support for PICKUP was around GBP 14 million, including the funding from the Universities Funding Council and the Polytechnics and College Funding Council.

Continuous Professional Development

2.5.19
As technology impinges more and more on all professions, it is becoming common for all new entrants to a particular profession to be required to undertake continuous professional development (CPD) if they are to maintain their professional status. The Engineering Council (an umbrella organisation of over 20 professional bodies in the engineering field) and other professional institutions have been experimenting for some years with flexible arrangements which enable professional people to update themselves, either through special courses or through less formal methods, including open learning. It seems likely that CPD will be a feature of most, if not all, senior professional bodies within the next decade. In some cases funding from the PICKUP programme has helped professional bodies to take the necessary first steps.

Enterprise training

2.5.20
One of the government's policies is to encourage enterprise, including both self-employment and the creation of small businesses. In 1991 there were over 3.25 million people in self-employment in the UK, a rise of 70% since 1979, and between 1985 and 1989 companies employing fewer than 20 people created about one million jobs; twice as many as those created by larger firms. In the recession, however, large numbers of smaller companies tend to go out of business, as do a number of self-employed. Despite this experience, the probability is that any economic recovery will lead to a resurgence in self-employment and the creation of small enterprises.

2.5.21
The government programmes for helping enterprise have now been taken over by the TECs and lecs. The specific schemes which previously existed (Small Firms Service, Local Enterprise Agencies, and the Enterprise Allowance Scheme, which paid people in the first year of setting up their own business) may now vary from TEC to TEC. This is not unreasonable given the very wide variations in the size of business in the different TEC and lec areas, and in the type of business which is attracted to them.

2.5.22
In Scotland, lecs have a much wider range of programmes and facilities for helping enterprise than TECs because they also have responsibility for a wide range of schemes and initiatives previously run by the Scottish Development Agency and the Highlands and Islands Development Board.

2.5.23
The small business sector is likely to continue to grow, partly because of changes in industry (increased sub-contracting by larger firms, growth in services, and technological developments), and partly because over the last decade self-employment or starting one's own business has become almost as natural an option as finding employment in a larger organisation. The provision for adults to learn the elements of business has increased very greatly in the last few years, partly through PICKUP-style courses in colleges, and partly through courses run by Employment Department-funded consultants, now the responsability of TECs and lecs

Open and flexible learning

2.5.24
In 1981 the Manpower Services Commission published a consultative document *'An Open Tech Programme*' and established a task group to set up an open learning system. This Open Tech programme came to be based, not on a single institution like the Open University, but on developing open and flexible learning delivered within enterprises or by local centres. These centres were sometimes colleges or sometimes specially established. The government pump-primed the Open Tech Programme until 1987, and the Employment Department still maintains a role in providing funding for a number of aspects of open learning.

2.5.25
In 1987 the government established the Open College *'to provide and encourage wide access to vocational education and training'* particularly through broadcasting and open learning methods. The Open College was initially different from the Open Tech Programme in that it was a single organisation rather than a network of institutions and organisations. It was intended to become the 'flagship' of the open learning movement providing vocational education and training. Unlike the Open Tech movement, but like the Open University, it had a high broadcasting element. The original aim was to achieve self-sustainment through selling a broad range of open learning materials in vocational areas. However, it soon became clear that the sale of packages alone would not generate the income required, and the Open College now offers a broad range of services within the area of open and flexible learning, including large-scale customised training programmes for the corporate sector.

2.5.26
In 1991 a number of polytechnics and institutions of higher education banded together to found the 'Open Polytechnic'. The reasoning was that the demand for higher education was increasing so rapidly that there was a market for obtaining higher education qualifications by open learning. The Open Polytechnic is concentrating on developing new teaching and learning materials (e.g. for caring occupations) and on promoting staff development to enable these materials to be delivered effectively. It aims to help the integration of open learning into established activities, and to strike a suitable balance between open learning and more traditional methods in its member institutions.

2.5.27
The Open University's primary purpose is to provide opportunities for undergraduate study to adults at a distance. The University's undergraduate programme is supported by grants from the Department of Education and Science totalling more than GBP 90 milliion in 1991-92. Through its continuing education programme, which is run on a self-financing basis, the University also offers courses for adults in a wide range of disciplines. These include the University's MBA course, other commercial and technical courses, and courses in social skills, such as parenting.

2.5.28
In July 1989 the Training Agency (previously the MSC, now the Employment Department) took an initiative in conjunction with ten local authority library services to improve access to, and use of, open learning programmes by members of the public in libraries. This project was closely monitored. The evidence gathered showed that borrowing of open learning materials were high, with some 50% of stock on loan at any one time, and nearly 2,000 loans recorded over a 3 month period. The service reached a wide range of users, 72% of whom had no previous experience of learning in this way. User satisfaction was high.

2.5.29
Significant proportions of people of all educational levels, from basic to degree level, used the service, often to try out learning new skills. A third were 'unwaged', three-quarters of these being women. Half were aged between 25 to 39, twice as many as in the population generally.

2.5.30
In 1991 this approach to open learning was being followed up in additional libraries. The 1992 White Paper *People, Jobs and Opportunities* has taken this development even further, stating the government intention to give all TECs and lecs, in partnership with local Library Services, the chance to make suitable learning materials and back-up services available in local libraries over the next three years.

2.5.31
There is now a very great deal of open learning material available in the UK for vocational education and training level. The Employment Department has a major programme to create databases which relate this material to the competences being established under the auspices of the lead bodies and to NVQs/SVQs.

In-company training

2.5.32
In-company training for adults has supplemented, indeed dwarfed, government programmes and initiatives. Between 1985 and 1990 there was a considerable and continuing increase in the numbers and percentage of those in all age groups who received training in the previous four weeks. The following table shows the total of males and females, by age groups over 20, who received on-the-job or off-the-job training in the previous four weeks.

Numbers of economically active people receiving training, thousands and percentages, Great Britain.

	Spring 1985		**Spring 1990**	
	Numbers (000s)	**%of all in group**	**Numbers (000s)**	**%of all in group**
20-24	508	13,9	686	19,1
25-29	342	10,9	607	16,0
30-39	537	8,6	911	14,3
40-49	329	6,1	772	12,3
50-59	150	3,5	324	7,5
60-64 (males)	14	1,8	29	4,0

Source: Training Statistics 1990 (for 1985)
Training Statistics 1991 (for 1990)

2.5.33
Some of this in-company training was undertaken by open learning. Indeed, some major companies have introduced open learning resource centres in their works for their employees, not only to learn from work-related packages, but also from a much wider range which can involve outside interests and leisure activities.

2.5.34
However, the government considers that a great number of employers remain unaware of the benefits, and of the need to take advantage of the training and re-training opportunities which are available to the workforce. One government initiative, launched by the government in 1991 and being implemented by TECs, Scottish Enterprise and Highlands and Islands Enterprise, is Investors in People. This establishes 'a new national standard for effective investment by employers in their own individual employees'. Employers who gain the Investors in People award are entitled to use a symbol to 'make it clear to a wider audience that they train and develop their employees'. The initial response from employers was encouraging.

Miscellaneous provisions

2.5.35
There are a number of other developments in providing continuing education and training for adults. A recent and important growth area has been in the provision of courses for women returners to the labour market. This has been particularly important in two fields:

- Women with high educational qualifications and managerial skills who might often find that without a special retraining they would have to take jobs below their capability on re-entry to the labour market after raising a family.

- Office workers, because in their absence from working life most offices have been invaded by information technology which initially may appear to be mysterious, and even frightening.

2.5.36
Although it cannot be said that every women returner is now fully prepared by training in advance, the opportunities for such training have increased very considerably since the mid-1980s.

2.5.37
In Scotland it has been possible for a long time for adults to join senior classes in secondary schools, e.g for language learning, and they are doing so in increasing numbers. This has not so far been possible in England and Wales because of educational legislation, but the 1991 White Paper stated the government's intention to remove barriers to this possibility.

2.5.38
Access courses, which prepare adults with insufficient formal qualifications to enter degree courses at some universities and polytechnics have been developed in many centres during the 1980s, both by open learning and by more traditional means. In future these courses may be supported by the Further Education Funding Councils.

2.5.39
The Scottish Wider Access Programme (SWAP) has brought together all local authority further education colleges and all higher education institutions in Scotland into three consortia. Access courses offered by further education colleges provide guaranteed entry to a higher education course. Access courses, normally comprising SCOTVEC National Certificate modules, are usually of one year duration and are taken on a full-time basis.

2.5.40
However, the flexibility inherent in the modular structure of the courses enables part-time provision and distance-learning also. Up to 2,000 students are expected to have enrolled on SWAP access courses in 1991-92.

Guidance for adults

2.5.41
The Careers Service (see paragraphs 2.4.29 - 2.4.32) has increasingly been providing careers guidance for adults, and its role in extending this facility is generally recognised.

2.5.42
At the same time, one of the main thrusts of government initiatives has been to provide information on training opportunities for adults through databases at both national level (e.g. the PICKUP Training Directory) and through the Training Access Points (TAP) initiative, which provided stand-alone self-service database access in public places. To a considerable extent this initiative is being subsumed within the TEC/lec structure.

2.5.43
The 1992 White Paper *People, Jobs and Opportunities* describes a new initiative, to be introduced from April 1993, to:

- develop effective and comprehensive local information, assessment and guidance services for people at work
- put individual people in the driving seat by offering them credits, which they can use to buy the guidance and assessment services of their choice.

2.5.44
The intention is that those given credits will be able to choose from a range of services including:

- information about occupations and the local jobs market
- advice about education and training
- assessment and guidance to help plan future development on the basis of their existing capabilities and potential
- counselling and advice about how to obtain qualifications, or part qualifications, on the basis of skills and knowledge that they already have.

2.5.45
This initiative, to be operated through TECs and lecs, will build on the existing best practice of employers, Careers Services, the Employment Service, Further and Higher Education establishments, private providers, TECs and lecs themselves and others at local and national levels.

2.5.46
For unemployed adults there is a range of advice and guidance. The White Paper *People, Jobs and Opportunities* lists:

- *Job Search Seminars, a new programme introduced in 1991, offering 2 days expert help on the best way to search out and apply for jobs (130,000 people to be helped);*
- *Job Review Workshops, another new programme introduced in 1991, offering, in particular, those with an executive or professional background, the opportunity to assess their career options under specialist guidance (27,000 people to be helped);*
- *Job Interview Guarantees, offering a range of help (including short job preparation courses) to prepare unemployed people for a guaranteed interview with a local employer who has jobs to fill (124,000 people to be helped);*
- *Employment Action provides work experience and job search support for unemployed people for up to a year on projects of benefit to the community (57,000 people to be helped);*
- *Restart Courses, aimed at unemployed people who have become out of touch with the jobs market. They provide an opportunity for individuals to re-assess their strengths and skills, re-build their confidence, and plan their way back to work (110,000 people to be helped);*
- *Enterprise Allowance, provides advice and financial assistance to unemployed people who want to set up in business for themselves (30,000-50,000 people to be helped).*

Training for trainers

2.5.47
After a number of experiments with different approaches on the training of trainers, the Employment Department has finally come to support their training through the provision of national trainer qualifications within the NCVQ/SCOTVEC framework, for staff involved in open learning and for trainers as a whole.

2.5.48
National standards available for trainers include assessor and verifier competences, seen by many as an essential ingredient for the enhancement of quality of training. These qualifications are likely to encourage the provision of a whole range of training delivery systems (both traditional and by open learning) for trainer training. In early 1992, the standards had been agreed and arrangements were being made for the assessment of the qualifications by the autumn.

2.5.49
The Training and Employment Agency's main programmes for adults include

- **Action for Community Employment (ACE)**
  ACE jobs are provided for the long term unemployed and offer one years work in employment of community benefit such as environmental improvement, help to the aged and disadvantaged, and energy conservation. ACE places are delivered through approximately 1000 community organisations known as ACE Sponsors.

- **Job Training Programme (JTP)**
  JTP is an employer-based training programme which parallels Employment Training in GB. It aims to address the needs of the long term unemployed by offering opportunities to them to refresh, enhance and update existing skills or to acquire skills in a new field thus enabling participants to compete more effectively for available jobs or to progress to self-employment. The programme is delivered by a network of 27 Managing Agents.

- **Management Training and Development**
  The Agency provides a range of schemes designed to improve and develop management skills both for existing managers and graduates seeking to follow managerial careers in industry. It also delivers the Enterprise Allowance Scheme which provides financial assistance to certain categories of unemployed people who wish to start up their own business.

2.5.50
The Agency's Employment Service provides a comprehensive all age guidance and placement service for the adult unemployed, young people, disabled persons and employers delivered through the Agency's 30 offices located across Northern Ireland.

REGULATORY AND FINANCIAL ARRANGEMENTS

3.1 Regulatory and administrative arrangements

Legislation

3.1.1

The legislative tradition is different for the educational system and for the training system. As the state imposed duties on local authorities to provide education and made education compulsory for children up to a given age, it had to use legislation to maintain the necessary control. The Education Reform Act 1988 amended the requirements of the 1944 Act. Although mainly aimed at schools, the 1988 Act was also used to create the new situation in which colleges became more autonomous. The Education Reform (NI) Order 1989 made similar provisions for Northern Ireland.

In Scotland, the Self Governing Schools etc (Scotland) Act 1989 established new College Councils with greater powers delegated by the education authorities. The coming 'incorporation' of colleges in England and Wales under the funding arrangements of the Further Education Funding Councils, and in Scotland direct funding by The Scottish Office Education Department, required further legislation, which was enacted by Parliament in early 1992.

The Secretary of State's powers to approve the types of courses offered by colleges and schools and to require institutions to provide statistical information and publish examination results, are also the result of this legislation.

3.1.2

Training is the responsibility of the Employment Department. Until the 1964 Industrial Training Act the tradition was to avoid legislation. The 1964 Act, which still applies to the few surviving ITBs, was needed to empower the Secretary of State to create Industrial Training Boards, which would raise revenue through a levy on industry. The factors which led to the dismantling of the Industrial Training Boards included the following:

- The ITBs were an alternative power base to the MSC, and there were a number of tensions between them.
- Although well and honestly managed, the ITBs were constrained by the legislation which established them to operate in a particular way (raising a levy from the industrial sector and returning most of it in grants based on 'training recommendations', which had to be sufficiently precise to support the payment of grants and therefore were often inflexible to meet the specific needs of industry). There was thus a perceived tendency in industry to 'train for grants' rather than to train for industrial need.
- Rising unemployment in the early 1980s, and especially youth unemployment, was an overriding major concern of government, and related more to geographical area than to industrial sector, while the powers given to ITBs under the Industrial Training Act had not proved sufficiently flexible to enable the training system to respond to the problems posed by unemployment.

- The wish to keep the number of ITBs comparatively low for ease of government administration meant that, in many cases, a number of industrial sectors which otherwise had little in common, were clustered together under the same ITB. This caused particular resentment among employers in the smaller sectors, who felt that their interests were being ignored in the interests of the larger sectors, e.g. furniture removers, which were part of the Road Transport Industry Training Board.
- Industry thus saw most ITBs as bureaucratic, tax raising bodies, not fully relevant to the needs of training.

3.1.3

The Conservative government has been reluctant to legislate further on training, and the 1991 White Paper *Education and Training in the 21st Century* came out very strongly against statutory compulsion:

> *'The commitment of young people and their employers to training needs to be secured by voluntary means. Compulsion on employers or young people is unnecessary. Other major industrial countries achieve high levels of skill without compulsion. Employers in Britain are raising their investment in skills without being forced to do so; they regard past attempts at statutory intervention in private sector training as a failure not to be repeated. The effects of compulsion would be damaging. Young people would be forced to follow routes they had not chosen. Employers would be burdened with bureaucratic requirements. Small firms would be particularly hampered. There would be far fewer jobs for young people. Our voluntary approach of offering incentives to young people to train through credits will raise skill levels without the damaging consequences of compulsion.'*

Legal personality

3.1.4

Nevertheless, in order to operate effectively, all the bodies in the vocational education and training system have to have legal personalities; otherwise they would not be able to enter into contracts (including contracts of employment with their staff), and would have difficulty in making purchases or sales. Under British law legal personalities can be created in a number of ways, including Royal Charter, as a result of legislation (as in the Further and Higher Education Act, 1992), as trusts, or under company legislation.

3.1.5

Some of the early bodies such as the Royal Society of Arts and City and Guilds (as well as the original Guilds themselves), and the major professional bodies, have Royal Charters. Colleges and Industrial Training Boards have legal personalities as a result of legislation. The Adult Literacy and Basic Skills Unit (ALBSU) is a charitable trust.

3.1.6
In the 1970s and 1980s it was found that the creation of companies limited by guarantee under company legislation, was the most flexible and least onerous method of creating new bodies. Most of the newer awarding bodies and all the TECs and lecs are therefore companies limited by guarantee. They have no share capital and are not able to distribute profits, although they can earn a surplus and maintain financial reserves. In some cases, the government departments concerned maintain a degree of control by appointing the chairman and members of these companies. The right to do so is enshrined in the Memorandum and Articles of Association of the company. Many of these companies limited by guarantee are also educational charities, which gives them an advantageous tax status, but subjects them to the regulation of the Charity Commissioners. The voluntary sector managing agencies are also frequently companies limited by guarantee and may have charitable status. Many of the private sector managing agencies and training organisations are companies limited by share capital, and can make and distribute profits.

Regulation

3.1.7
Given the comparative absence of legislation, the main regulation of the vocational education and training system is by

- the reserve powers of the Department of Education and Science and the other education departments over educational establishments (see paragraph 2.2.7 - 2.2.12),
- financial controls (ie. by criteria for, or conditions attached to, funding by the Further Education Funding Councils when they are established).
- contract
- quality assurance
- the qualification system.

Regulation by contract

3.1.8
In addition to using company law to create organisations, the law of contract has been used to regulate relationships between organisations. The TECs, for example, are under contract to the Employment Department. Managing Agents for Youth Training and Employment Training carried out their work under contract to the Employment Department. New contracts for these programmes are now being awarded by the TECs and lecs.

3.1.9
This use of company legislation and the law of contract means that the different organisations in the system are able to react to changing requirements as rapidly as private industry would be able to, in contrast to the slower reaction time associated with legislation. It has also made it easier for the government to use tendering as a means of obtaining value for money in its expenditure on training.

Regulation by quality assurance

3.1.10

Managing Agents for YT and ET had to have Accredited Training Organisation (ATO) status. The Employment Department set up a detailed assessment process to provide this status. The responsibility has now been transferred to TECs and lecs, and the criteria applied will depend on each TEC itself. As an example, one TEC has established seven criteria for quality assurance:

Identification of training needs

Individual training needs are effectively assessed leading to a realistic Personal Training Plan setting out National Vocational Qualifications and competences and the agreed methods of achieving them.

Training designed and delivered to national standards

The design, content and methods of delivery of competence-based training is effective in achieving positive outcomes especially recognised employment and/or vocational qualifications.

Effective quality management

Organisations have planned methods of reviewing and developing the effectiveness of their provision for staff development.

Recruitment, selection and competence of staff

Providers have sufficient appropriately trained staff resources to deliver their contract.

Equal Opportunities Policy

Organisations demonstrate the policy is positively implemented and monitored.

Health and Safety; suitability of premises and equipment

The effective implementation of the organisations's Health and Safety policy ensuring safe and suitable premises and equipment along with safe working practices.

Financial viability

Effective, accurate financial control systems are maintained and financial viability is assessed.

This TEC has also introduced star ratings for training providers with the aim that all must achieve the top quality status within an agreed time-scale.

3.1.11

Government policy, as expressed in the White Paper *Education and Training for the 21st Century* attaches 'great importance to systems which will ensure the quality of education and training provided by the colleges'.

3.1.12

At present quality assurance is provided by the qualification system and by:

- internal college mechanisms, including performance indicators. Some colleges are exploring the use of the British Standard on Quality (BS 5750), Total Quality Management and Strategic Quality Management.

- independent external evaluation of the quality of teaching and learning in colleges. The two main sources are Her Majesty's Inspectorate (HMI) and LEA advisers.

3.1.13
Under the new system envisaged in the White Paper, the Further Education Funding Councils will have responsibilities relating to quality assurance (including basing some decisions on financial allocation by judgements on quality), but LEAs will no longer have a role.

Regulation by qualifications

3.1.14
The use of the qualification system to provide indicators of quality of training is inherent in the central place given to vocational qualifications in government policy. (See sub-section 2.3). But there is a chain of activities to be completed before such indicators can be valid:

- The awarding body has to be approved - by showing that its resources and procedures are adequate. Such approval is the responsibility of NCVQ or SCOTVEC.

- The individual NVQ/SVQ also has to be accredited (also by NCVQ or SCOTVEC) to ensure that it is a worthwhile qualification conforming to acceptable criteria.

- In some cases an awarding body may 'license' an education or training centre to enter candidates for the award.

- The awarding body will appoint assessors to ensure that the assessment of individual competences is of an adequate standard, and verifiers to supervise the work of assessors.

3.1.15
The whole chain is complex and potentially expensive. The reliability of qualifications as indicators of quality cannot be taken for granted. In late 1991 a number of developments were in hand to investigate how to tighten up the quality chain without increasing the costs.

3.1.16
Despite the difficulties involved, the association of educational training with qualifications is accepted by employers and individuals as an indicator of quality. For example, there is both government and industrial encouragement to relate appropriate PICKUP short courses (paragraphs 2.5.17-2.5.18) to NVQ units as one answer to the question 'How good is the course?'

3.1.17
Another approach to the use of qualifications to provide quality assurance, is the requirement by the DES that schools should publish their examination results in a prescribed way. In June 1991 the DES encouraged colleges to publish their examination results. Initially this is on a voluntary basis but, as with schools, the Secretary of State could use his statutory powers to require publication.

3.2 Finance

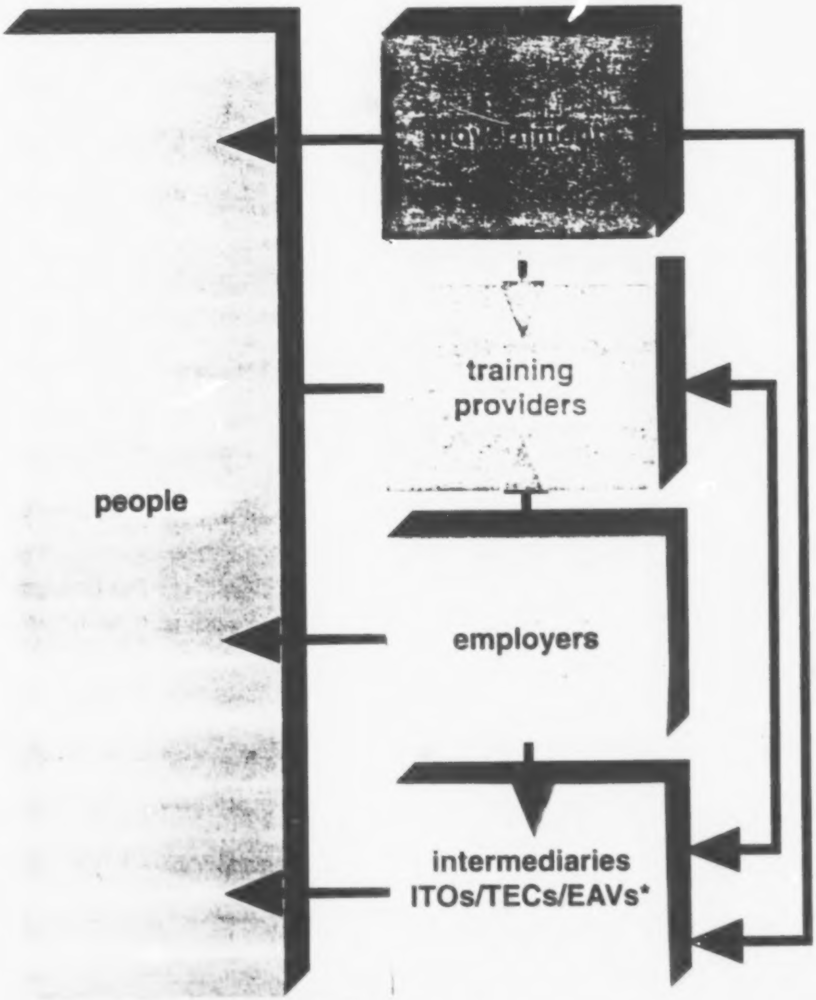
Training

3.2.1

The results of an ambitious and far-reaching survey of the funding of training were published in 1989 as *Training in Britain: A Study of Funding Activity and Attitudes*. Most of the research results refer to 1986/87. The main findings have not been invalidated by the changes in training structure since then, and serve to illuminate the way in which training is implemented.

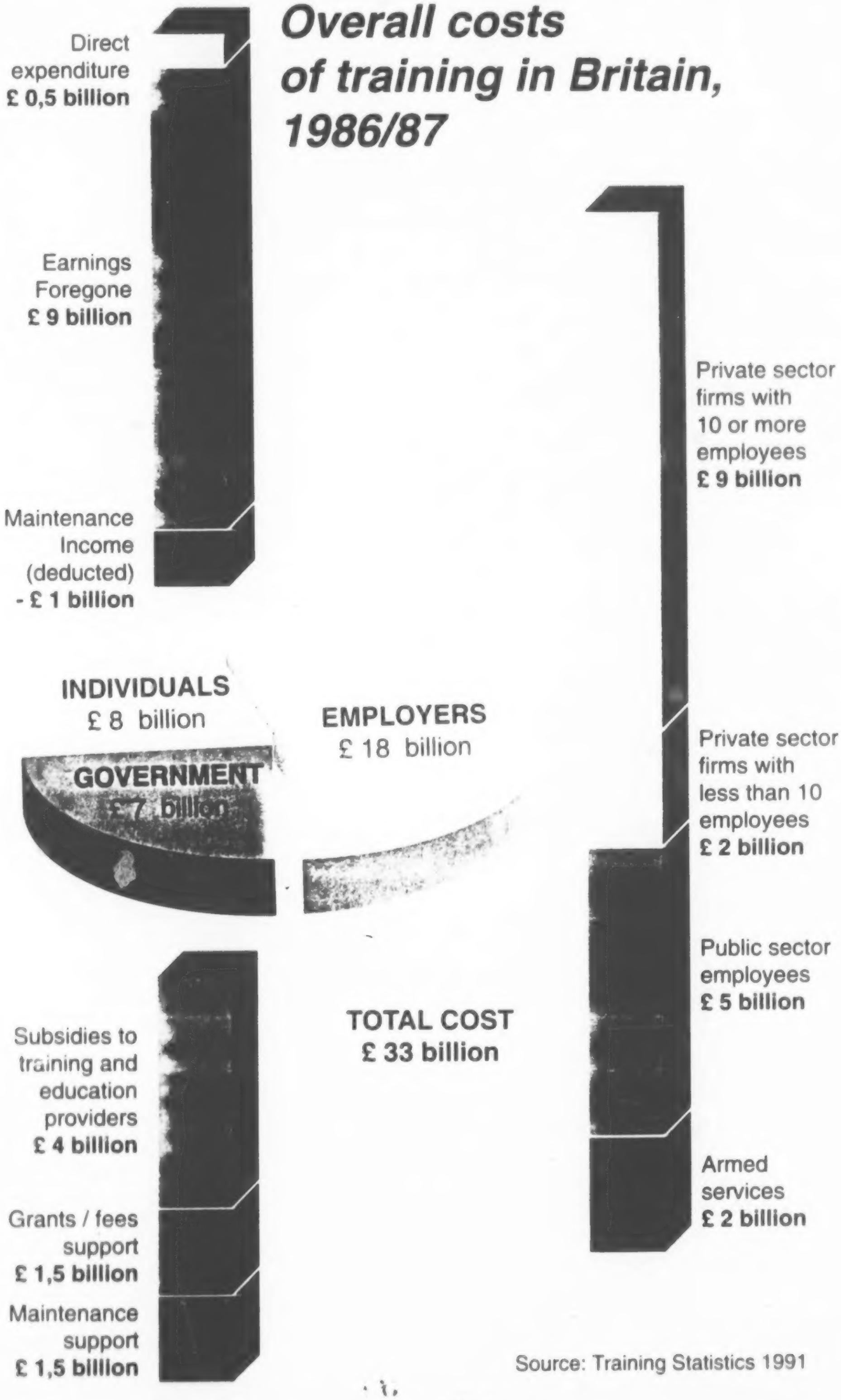
Financial flows in training are shown in the diagram below.

Financial Flows


training providers
people
employers
intermediaries
ITOs/TECs/EAVs*

* examining and validating bodies
Source: Training Statistics 1991

3.2.2
In 1986/87 it was estimated that the overall costs of training in Britain were GBP 33 billion. These costs were made up as shown in the diagram below.



Overall costs of training in Britain, 1986/87

Source: Training Statistics 1991

3.2.3
Employers in the public sector, and private sector firms with 10 or more employees, together had a gross expenditure of just over GBP 15 billion, but when income from providing training (GBP 177 million) or from government or training board grants (GBP 451 million) is deducted, the net expenditure is rather over GBP 14 billion. The components of the gross expenditure is shown in the table below.

Components of gross expenditure on training 1986/87

Staff costs	GBP	12 243 million
Off-the-job training facilities	GBP	1 495 million
Materials, equipment and other costs	GBP	445 million
Externally provided training on site	GBP	117 million
Externally provided training off site	GBP	606 million
ITB levies and subscriptions to ITO	GBP	157 million

Source: Training Statistics 1990

3.2.4
The following table shows that there were wide variations in the average cost of training per trainee by industrial sector. The lowest was in local government, with GBP 941 per trainee, and the highest in construction, with GBP 2923 per trainee. Other sectors spending more than GBP 2000 per year per trainee were finance and business services (GBP 2328), and central government (GBP 2149). The average cost per trainee in the private sector was GBP 1788 and in the public sector GBP 1504 giving a national average per trainee of GBP 1674.

Employers' training costs by industrial sector Great Britain 1986/87

	Average Cost per Trainee (GBP)	Total Training Costs (GBP mill.)
Extraction/Energy/Water	1,131	344
Manufacture of Minerals and Chemicals	1,336	358
Mechanical Engineering	1,721	401
Electrical Engineering	1,595	464
Metal Goods	1,747	645
Textiles/Clothing	1,262	167
Other Processing	1,625	781
Construction	2,923	465
Transport/Communication	1,204	579
Wholesale	1,634	415
Retail	1,516	1,372
Finance/Business Services	2,328	2,049
Catering/Recreational/Personal Services	1,848	1,728
Health	1,841	1,482
Central Government	2,149	787
Local Government	941	627
Education	1,620	1,771
TOTAL	1,674	14,432
TOTAL PRIVATE SECTOR	1,788	9,214

Source: Training Statistics 1991

3.2.5

Including trainees' salaries, the total costs for employers of training in 1986/87 are shown in the table below.

Employers' costs (GBP millions) 1986/87

	Total on-the-job	Total off-the-job	Other overheads less grants	Total training costs
Total manufacturing private	1253	1418	626	3297
Total services private	2898	1856	1166	5920
Total private sector	4150	3273	1791	9214
Total public sector	2687	2568	- 37	5218
Total GB	**6837**	**5841**	**1754**	**14432**

Source : Training Statistics 1990

3.2.6

Because of the many changes in the structure of vocational training since 1986/87 it would be misleading to quote the 1986/87 breakdown of expenditure on training by central government. A better indication is given by the 1988-1989 outturn, the estimated outturn for 1990-1991 and the plans for 1992-1993, shown in the table below.

Expenditure on main training, education and enterprise programmes (GB total)

GBP million	**1988-89 outturn**	**1990-91 estimated outturn**	**1992-93 plans**
Training and education programmes			
YouthTraining (including Training Credits*)	1020	833	842
Employment Training*	1340	1062	792
Career Development Loans	1	3	7
Compacts*, Education/ Business Partnerships* and other education initiatives	1	7	14
Enterprise in Higher Education*	2	12	20
Work-related Further Education*	110	103	108
Technical Vocational Education Initiative	88	134	144
Training and Education Support*	35	47	40
National Council for Vocational Qualifications	3	2	4
Total Training	**2600**	**2203**	**1971**
Enterprise Programmes			
Business Enterprise Support*			
Small Firms	250	200	191
- Loan Guarantee Schemes	4	14	11
- Information Services	4	3	1
Local Initiative Funds	—	20	39
Other enterprise and small firms initiatives	3	7	6
Promotion of tourism	49	44	48
Total Enterprise	**310**	**288**	**296**
Total Training and Enterprise	**2910**	**2491**	**2267**

*wholly or partly delivered through TECs / lecs
Source : Training Statistics 1991

3.2.7
The European Social Fund allocations to employment and training schemes in the United Kingdom in 1989 were GBP 418 million, GBP 216 of which was allocated to programmes run by central government departments and bodies; mainly the Employment Department. A breakdown of this GBP 216 expenditure is shown in the table below.

Breakdown of ESF expenditure and government programmes (1989)

YTS	GBP 91.1 million
Employment Training	70.7 million
Enterprise Allowance Scheme	6.8 million
Non-Advanced Further Education	4.2 million
High Technology Training and New Technology	2.4 million
Employment Rehabilitation Centres	2.6 million
Job Start	1.2 million

Source : Training Statistics 1990

3.2.8
The total ESF funding of GBP 418 represented just over 1% of estimated expenditure on training in the UK, and the GBP 216 contribution to central government programmes represented just over 6% of central government spending on training.

3.2.9
In 1989 the Labour Force survey reported that of all those employees of working age receiving job related training in the past four weeks, 68.9% were paid for by the employer or potential employer, and 89.8% were paid their wages in full during training.

3.2.10
One of the defined problems of training in the UK compared to some other industrial countries has been the high pay of apprentices in relation to normal employees. In industry as a whole, male and female apprentices received 58.9% of the average weekly gross earnings in 1970, but this had dropped to 49.8% in 1984.

3.2.11
The following table shows that in the manufacturing and construction industries the pay of apprentices and full-time trainees (including those on YT or YTS if they had a contract of employment) rose between 1975 and 1978, but since then has consistently fallen.

Pay of apprentices and other full-time trainees as a percentage of all pay in manufacturing and construction industries

	% of pay of all employees				
	1975	**1978**	**1981**	**1984**	**1988**
All manufacturing industries	55.5	58.0	57.7	52.4	46.7
Construction	58.2	59.8	55.8	50.2	42.6

Source : Training Statistics 1990

3.2.12

To some extent this decline was probably due to the availability of young people, but also the replacement of apprenticeship by YTS or Youth Training. Whether the percentage will continue to decline could depend on a number of factors, especially:

- demographic decline
- the level of youth unemployment
- the further decline of apprenticeship and growth of Youth Training.

Education

3.2.13
Central and local government expenditure on higher, further and adult education in 1988/89 is shown in the following table.

Net education and related expenditure on further, higher and adult education : 1 April 1989 - 31 March 1990 (GBP million)

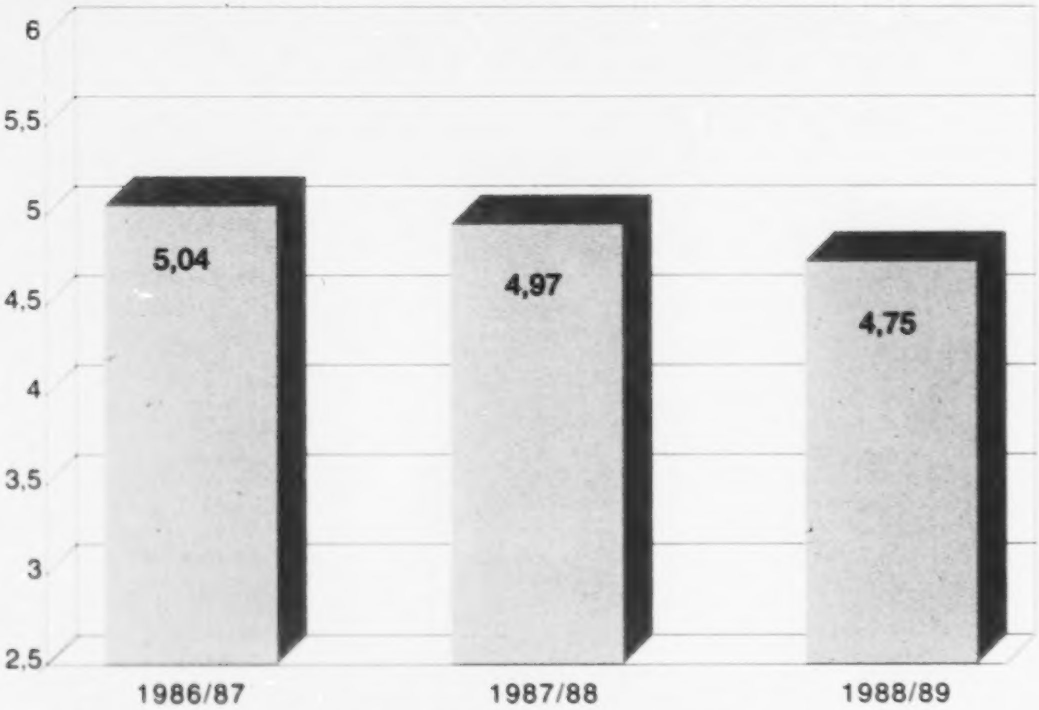
	Local education authorities	**Central govemment**	**Total**
Grants to students - tuition fees	227.2	29.8	257.0
Salaries and wages			
Teaching staff	1,652.3	41.3	1,693.6
Other staff	503.9	0.4	504.3
Other (inc. Training of Teachers - tuition)	107.5	142.4	249.9
Total	**2,490.9**	**213.9**	**2,704.8**
Capital from revenue	11.7	17.2	28.9
Capital from loans	135.2	—	135.2
Total	**2,637.8**	**231.1**	**2,868.9**
Loan charges	141.4	—	141.4

Source : Education Statistics for the United Kingdom 1991

3.2.14
As noted in paragraph 2.2.15, from April 1993 colleges in England and Wales will be directly funded by the Further Education ouncils and not by LEAs. Similarly Colleges in Scotland will be directly funded by the Scottish Office. In Spring 1992 details of these funding arrangements had not been announced.

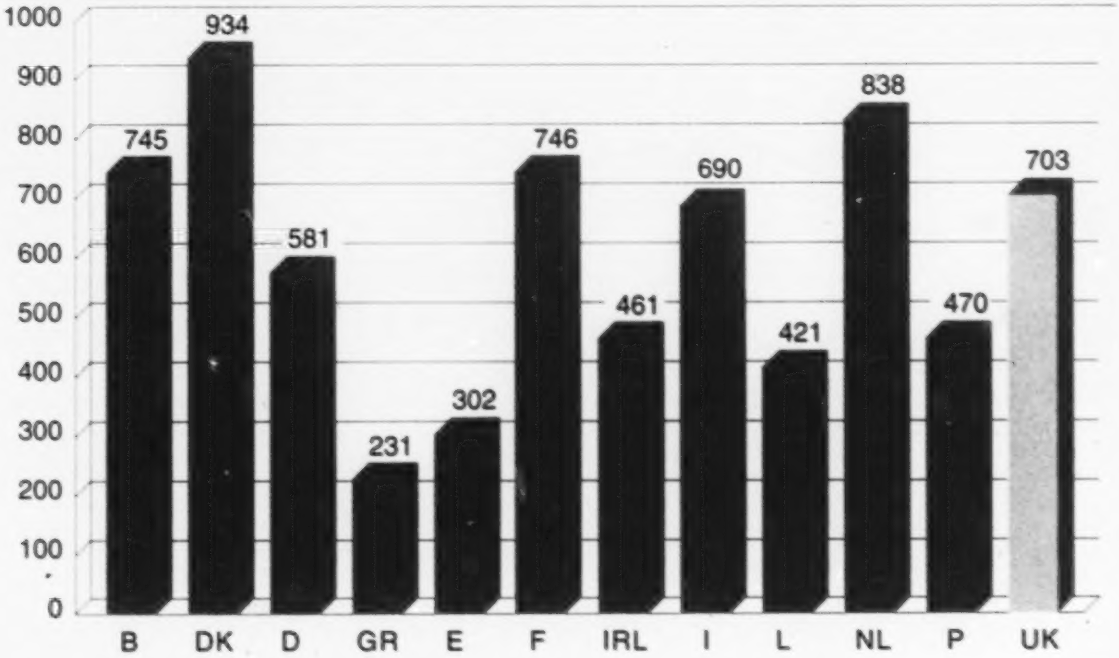
3.2.15
The following tables show the proportion of educational expenditure to gross domestic product in the UK and the educational expenditure per head of population in all Member States.

Public expenditure on education in the UK (% of GDP)



Source: OECD: Education in OECD countries 1986/87
OECD in Figures, 1991 and 1992 editions

Public expenditure on education in 1985 (in purchasing power standard - PPS, per head of population)



Source: Eurostat - A Social Portrait of Europe 1991

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TRENDS AND PERSPECTIVES

4.1 Europeanisation of vocational education and training

The Single European Market

4.1.1
The economic impact of the Single European Market, and indeed the market's very existence, is likely to have a greater influence on UK vocational education and training than European Community programmes, contributions to funding or the direct effect of the Social Charter.

4.1.2
The direct impact of the Single European Market is likely to affect vocational education and training in the UK by:

- forcing companies to train to be more efficient to protect their own markets from competition from other Member States
- improving quality, design and marketing efforts to take advantage of opportunities in other Member States
- making it necessary for organisations to adopt European Standards and to comply with regulations based on EC directives.
- encouraging order of magnitude increases in the learning of European languages.
- encouraging a rethink on the breadth of NVQs/SVQs.

4.1.3
At the same time the rationalisation within the European Community of manufacturing and process industry production is likely to lead to closure of factories and processing plants in a number of countries. The opening of the Channel Tunnel means that the UK will almost certainly not be immune from this. The result may counter demographic effects on the availability of labour, and put a premium on adult training.

4.1.4
The UK is not only open to influences from the European Community, but is also susceptible to developments in the USA, which may prove closer to the UK outlook and traditions and further from those on continental Europe. For example, TECs were based on the PICs in the USA, rather than on the strengthening of Chambers of Commerce in the fashion of continental Europe (which had been the subject of an experiment, and might have been an option for government support).

ESF Funding and EC Programmes

4.1.5
The national impact of ESF funding is small because (as noted in paragraph 3.2.8) it is such a small proportion of the UK expenditure on training. However, ESF funding does ensure that a few regions which would otherwise be left behind are able to keep up with, or even overtake, more prosperous areas in the development of new approaches to training.

4.1.6

The main influences of the EC programmes on vocational education and training in the UK are:

- Learning to work together with organisations and institutions in other countries. If this were the only result of EC programmes it would in itself be a worthwhile outcome.
- Outward student mobility, at least in higher education, is likely to take off because of the pump-priming of the ERASMUS programme. Although mobility at vocational education and training level and for young workers may be more difficult to achieve, it seems likely that in the long run the PETRA programme could be as influential. For every student who studies abroad with EC support there will be several others who will be fired with the ambition to find some means of studying at least part of their course in another country.
- Raising the interest of the European dimension in the curriculum.
- The ERASMUS programme has given added impetus to the development of modularisation and credit transfer in higher education.

4.1.7

In general, however, the impact of the European Community education and training programmes is likely to be very small. There are several reasons for this:

- There has been so much experimentation in the UK in the last decade that most of the ideas which are being treated as 'leading edge' in European Community education and training programmes have already been tried out in the UK; the ones which work have been, or are in process of being, adopted and the ones which do not work have been abandoned.
- The amount of funding available in total is proportionately small in relation to national budgets.
- Many of the programme proposals have come from universities which, in the UK, have little contact with, or understanding of, vocational education and training.
- The low rate of award of contracts in relation to the number of proposals made means that the effect of the programmes is considerably diluted.

Social Charter

4.1.8

At the Maastricht summit the UK was able to opt out of the Social Charter. It will probably adopt (and indeed has already adopted) some of the provisions. But even if the Social Charter were fully implemented in the UK its impact is likely to be less than expected. First, in order for its provisions to be accepted, additional watering down and compromise on content is probable. Secondly, if the Social Charter increases industrial costs then either companies will go out of business or they will survive by finding ways round such costs, e.g. by employing sub-contractors instead of workers. This would indeed be an effect of the Social Charter, but not that intended by its supporters.

4.1.9

Health and Safety Directives of the EC do have a major impact on UK industry, partly because the UK has a good record of adopting and enforcing them. However, they only have an indirect influence on vocational education and training.

Mobility

4.1.10

The comparability of qualifications is likely to have long-term rather than short-term effects on mobility of labour and on the motivation to obtain qualifications which would be recognised in other countries. In mid-1991, the Overseas Placing Unit of the Employment Department, which deals with placements throughout the world, handled about 800 written and 800 telephone enquiries a month. Enquiries would have to increase 100-fold for there to be any real flow of labour across national boundaries. Barriers may partly be removed by education and information about the cultures of other EC Member States, but are likely to continue to include not only language, but subtleties of behaviour and expectations.

4.1.11

There is evidence, however, both from the Careers Service and from other sources, that work and study in continental Europe is catching the imagination of young people. It may well be that a grass roots movement will swell and influence policy directions.

Systems

4.1.12

Systems in most other Member States seem still to concentrate on the process of (and in particular the time spent in) vocational education and training. The UK has largely turned its back on process and concentrated on outcomes. In a process-based system time is the constant and the level of achievement the variable. In an outcome-based system the standard achieved is the constant and the time taken to achieve it is the variable. The flexibility inherent in an outcome-based system is too valuable to abandon, and while the European Community continues to use phraseology relating to process-based and time-based systems its advice is likely to be treated as irrelevant in the UK.

4.1.13

This comparative lack of impact is not necessarily bad for UK education and training. As will be seen in the next sub-section, the main requirement is for stability. While exposure to new ideas and comparisons with partners within the European Community will be marginally helpful, it would be a major setback to the improvement of UK training if European Community influences required yet more structural changes to be implemented and digested.

4.2 Trends in systems in the UK

A decade of change

4.2.1
The 1980s were a decade of considerable change, and some of the changes will not be fully implemented until 1993 or later. The main strands of the previous decade and a half of interventionism have been dismantled and replaced with a system which is comprehensive but diffused. During this last decade there has hardly been time to digest one change before another has been thrust upon those working in education and training.

4.2.2
Changes which are being digested at the moment affect:

- the school system
- qualifications, and the bodies responsible for them
- TECs and lecs
- Industrial Training Organisations
- colleges, managing agents and other deliverers of training
- enterprises
- trainees themselves.

Schools

4.2.3
Since the early 1960s the UK has had a series of training systems. It even had a degree of stability between 1964 and 1981, with a potentially good system in place. One reason why that system did not meet its full potential was due to the need for vocational education and training to put a lot of remedial effort to counter the defects of school education. Although some of the changes to school education are controversial, and few are as adequately funded as TVEI, there are signs of a gradual improvement in standards. But for this improvement to be widespread, time is needed for the schools to master the changes.

Qualifications

4.2.4
The use of the qualification system to provide a degree of unity to vocational education and training could be seen as a return to the training regime which was in place before the Industrial Training Act 1964. This regime persisted in education in parallel with attempts to provide a national training system. In a sense, therefore, this use of qualifications is familiar to those responsible for delivering vocational education and training. While some characteristics of NVQs/SVQs (competence-based outcomes, modularisation, credit accumulation) are familiar to some providers and users, their synthesis into a coherent framework is new and will take time to be implemented to the full degree of flexibility which is inherent in them (see sub-section 2.3).

4.2.5
The internal conflict within the NVQ/SVQ Framework between the 'ownership' of standards of competence by large numbers of organisations each representing a comparatively small sector of industry and the need to have an intelligible system of qualifications has yet to be resolved. Because of this 'ownership' of standards there has been a tendency for there to be more duplication between qualifications than is necessary. This is now recognised, and increasingly the same standards are being used for the same functions across qualifications. Indeed, Scottish Vocational Qualifications build on the modular National Certificate in Scotland which was developed partly on the grounds of reducing duplication of provision. As additional National Vocational Qualifications are accredited and the system is fully implemented at both accreditation and delivery levels, there will probably be adjustments and changes, joint certification, and probably the amalgamation of Lead Bodies (see also paragraph 2.3.12).

4.2.6
From about 1990 increasing concern was being expressed about the narrowness and lack of ambition of much of UK vocational education and training at the lower level. In early 1992, unfavourable comparisons were being made with the position in other member states (eg. over the amount of mathematics expected from construction industry craftsmen, especially as new techniques in the industry require more calculation to be made on site to a high degree of accuracy). There was a growing fear that some of the characteristics of NVQ (eg Lead Body definition of competences, work place assessment) were encouraging the emergence of qualifications which were too narrow and which would not remain valid as technologies changed. When the broader General NVQs are implemented, they may prove to be a more attractive qualification to many employers than narrower ones based only on work experience.

TECs and lecs

4.2.7
The responsibility for much of training, and some vocational education, has now been passed to the TECs and lecs, which can use national funding to meet locally identified priorities, with the management of solutions to local needs being in the hands of (admittedly unelected) local leaders of industry . (See paragraphs 2.2.22 - 2.2.24).

4.2.8
Although by mid-1991 all except one of the TECs and lecs were operational, being operational does not of itself mean having an impact on local industrial problems. It will take several years before the enthusiasm of the industrialists who have joined the TEC and lec boards is transmuted into operational programmes which really inspire local industry to train. The speed at which they are able to influence training may depend on the nature of their area (those with a really heavy preponderance of very small firms will take time to become effective), on the level of discretionary funding, and on the amount of variations which they are permitted to make in the YT, ET and Enterprise programmes; these make up the greater part of their income and their expenditure.

4.2.9
Provided that the initial enthusiasm and motivation of industrialists can be maintained there would seem to be a good opportunity for TECs and lecs to make the necessary breakthrough in persuading industry to train to a far greater extent than it has done hitherto.

Industrial Training Organisations

4.2.10
There is still a role for centrally based Industrial Training Organisations, although many of them may well never be operationally strong. Nevertheless, their contacts with industry, the professions and occupations will mean that they will be sources of expertise and influence. (See paragraph 2.2.21)

4.2.11
If sectoral bodies are to make an even greater impact on vocational education and training they will need more resources than they currently have. One reason why some of those which are Lead Bodies aim at becoming awarding bodies also, is the belief (almost certainly misplaced) that they will be able to fund the maintenance of occupational standards of competence through candidate fees. In many cases, however, the cost of assessment is becoming so high that it could lead to a diminishing of the numbers presenting themselves as candidates for qualifications. This twin issue (the cost of assessment and the lack of resources of Industrial Training Organisations) will need to be tackled because the sectoral and occupational organisation of vocational education and training is as important as their local organisation. Regional and local differences between the qualification requirements of individuals in any one industrial sector tend to be small or non-existent. It may not be enough for sectoral and occupational arrangements to work only through the NVQ/SVQ Framework. One of the bedding-down issues for the new UK system will be to ensure adequate resources for these bodies.

Delivery of vocational education and training

4.2.12
The increasing autonomy of the main deliverers of vocational education and training outside employment - the colleges - together with the increasingly business-like approach of these institutions, seems likely to strengthen them in the long run, although time will be needed for the new market-based philosophy to be accepted by all who work in them.

4.2.13
By mid-1991 few, if any, colleges had fully digested the full implications of the limited autonomy they obtained under the Education Reform Act 1988. The additional autonomy proposed by the 1991 White Papers (paragraphs 2.2.14 - 2.2.18) could be seen as natural progression from the 1988 Act, with colleges' response to local management giving the government confidence to allow them to move a stage further towards full autonomy. It is unlikely, however, that the full implications of this reform (to be introduced in April 1993) will have been digested before the middle of the decade. In particular, new management methods (and the change of attitudes which are needed to make sure they work) will have to be introduced if the full flexibility inherent in the NVQ Framework is to operate.

4.2.14
Managing Agents for Youth Training and Employment Training have had a difficult few years. Some have gone into liquidation because they depended on a stability of funding from the Employment Department; this has not been maintained, because of changes in overall availability of resources and because of the downloading of responsibility to TECs and lecs. If the private or voluntary sectors are to continue to act as Managing Agents for these major programmes they will need a greater assurance of continuous funding than they have had in recent years. Otherwise it becomes very risky to invest in the premises, equipment and staff which are necessary to provide an appropriate training service. In 1991 it was still uncertain whether stability for forward planning was likely to be available.

Enterprises

4.2.15
When Britain moves out of recession, one impediment to enterprises undertaking adequate training, lack of resources, is likely to disappear. Recruitment should pick up.

4.2.16
The larger organisations, which have often been the leaders in training, tend to divide into two categories. Those whose main centre is in one location are likely to find that the new structures for vocational education and training are wholly favourable. This may also be the case for those whose branches have different training needs and considerable autonomy over training decisions. The other category, however, which comprises companies with similar training needs and many different branches in different parts of the country (e.g. banks, large retail chains) may find that the differences in local arrangements for YT, in particular, may cause problems of coordination and contact. Indeed, some such organisations are withdrawing from Youth Training and continuing their own in-house systems in order to avoid what they see as the additional bureaucracy of having to deal with large numbers of separate TECs and lecs.

4.2.17
A recurring problem for vocational education and training in Britain (as no doubt in other countries) is how to influence SMEs. The Industrial Training Boards established under the 1964 Industrial Training Act tended to exclude them deliberately, by having a cut-off point of size (expressed in terms of turnover or numbers of employees) below which it was unnecessary to register with an ITB or pay a levy. With so much employment growth now in the hands of SMEs it is important that their training should be tackled. So far, however, none of the changes in structure seem to have led to a major impact being made on SMEs. Certainly the TECs and lecs are conscious of this issue and are seeking to find different ways of tackling it in their areas. It will, however, be a difficult, and probably costly, task. Although the will is there in the TECs and lecs to tackle it, a suitable methodology for creating effective training in the smaller organisations may not yet exist. This is certainly going to be one of the challenges of the 1990s.

Individuals

4.2.18

Again, one of the problems of the Industrial Training Boards established under the 1964 Industrial Training Act, concerned individual trainees. The apparently sensible requirement that, to be eligible for grant an organisation had to provide day release for employees under 18, was often treated as compulsory day release. Although many young people benefitted, there was a large residue of unmotivated day-release students who had no 'ownership' of their own learning, but were sent to college as otherwise their employer would not receive an ITB grant. For many years this tended to poison the culture of vocational education. Some aspects of YTS and Youth Training, especially the fact that it did not automatically lead to a job, reinforced rather than changed the low regard in which further education and training were held by too large a proportion of young people.

4.2.19

The widespread use of training credits, and perhaps of Compacts, may change the culture of the trainees and increase their interest in receiving training and obtaining qualifications.

Influences on further change

4.2.20

The new structure which will soon be in place therefore needs plenty of time to settle down, with necessary adjustments to overcome immediate problems, and with some further rationalisation, but with no major changes for a long time ahead. Following the return of the Conservative government in the April 1992 General Election, what are the possible changes which could tend to threaten this need for stability?

4.2.21

As already noted, it seems unlikely that Europeanisation of vocational education and training will make major changes necessary in the UK structure, even though it is very different in its concepts from many of those in other Member States of the European Community and in the thinking which seems to lie behind some European Community programmes.

4.2.22

It is more likely that the structure will be tested by other types of change:

- demography
- the way industry is organised
- the enterprise economy
- technology.
- resources, or the lack of them

4.2.23

Demographic change, especially the fluctuations in the number of young people, is likely to test the effectiveness of the new vocational education and training structure. When employment requirements are high and young people are few, there will have to be a concentration on retraining and bringing into the labour force people at present wholly or partly outside it: even more women, the long-term unemployed, ethnic minorities, the physically disadvantaged and older people. When there are more young people in the market place than industry can absorb (as was the case in the early and mid-1980s) then the importance of alleviating youth unemployment might be such an important policy issue that it could deflect (as it did in the 1980s) the general development of the training system.

4.2.24
Industry is tending to organise itself in ways which differ from the recent past. A greater reliance is being placed on sub-contracting and the employment of part-time workers. Although there may be demands (e.g. under the Social Charter) to make such approaches more difficult to achieve, these are unlikely to prevent the continuation of this trend. The problem of training then moves from the main employer to the sub-contractor or to the individual part-time worker. It is an issue which may be more difficult for the new training system to handle than some of the other issues, but this difficulty would probably have been even greater under the previous training structure which, as noted above, tended to ignore small organisations.

4.2.25
Small organisations seem likely to continue to have a major influence on employment. Despite the liquidation of many enterprises, not all badly run, in the 1991-1992 recession, the example of how people without large capital can set up and run their own business may have so altered the culture of the UK that the number of would-be entrepreneurs is likely to continue to increase. This may require a greater concentration of government expenditure through the TECs and lecs than at present, where funding available for enterprise is very small compared to the funding for training programmes. Increasingly, it may be difficult to disaggregate training needs from other needs of enterprises.

4.2.26
Both SMEs and large enterprises are going to be greatly influenced by changes in technology. Technological change is likely to increase. There is already a large gap between the most advanced and the least advanced. Information technology has already changed the way in which many organisations work, and is likely to continue to do so. The requirements of training for, and the possibilities of training by, information technology, will clearly influence the way in which all parts of the new vocational education and training structure operate. Training may be delivered by IT, and there is likely to be an enormous increase in the administration, and even the delivery, of assessment by computer. Even small Industrial Training Organisations and Lead Bodies are likely to need the necessary hardware, software and staff trained to use it. Colleges and Managing Agencies, already well supplied witih such equipment and staff, are likely to need the equipment in greater numbers so that every student or trainee can use the hardware without having to queue. This may require large capital investment. This point of additional resources raises one of the big questionmarks over the successful development of training within the new structure.

Resources

4.2.27
This question of resources is exacerbated by the multiplier factor of there being so many bodies (104 TECs and lecs, about 100 ITOs, about 140 Lead Bodies,

about 300 awarding bodies and now some 500 colleges no longer sharing overheads through the LEAs). Most of these need greater financial resources than they are able to raise themselves if they are to play the part intended for them in the new vocational education and training structure. The exceptions are the larger awarding bodies, which are self-financing, but even they may need up-front assistance if they are to make the necessary changes in their systems at the level of priority intended by the government. Admittedly, the use of company law to create bodies may mean that there will be more mergers, take-overs and even liquidations. These will probably only be on the margin, as otherwise the close links of TECs and lecs with local industry, and of ITOs and LBs as industrial sectors and associated occupations, might be severed

4.2.28

Another major problem of there being so many different bodies is that each one will have to liaise with many others. Some of this liaison may need to be at senior management level and may deflect senior management from decision-making on training issues. A recent overview of the role of the Engineering Industry Training Board from 1964 to 1991 suggests that the EITB was less successful than it might have been in the 1970s because the senior staff 'had their attention diverted from their main task of surveying the engineering industry and meeting its training needs. Indeed, they had to devote much of their time to negotiations with the MSC, whose priorities were different from those of the industry'. TECs are certainly spending a great deal of senior management time on their relationships with the Employment Department, but this may be because they are so new. They need time to settle down and get to grips with the training problems of their areas. Awarding bodies and providers of vocational education and training are also having to spend a lot of management time in negotiating with TECs and lecs. The many other bodies also need time to absorb and implement efficiently all the changes which have recently been, or are about to be, made.

4.2.29

Some of the changes taking place seem likely to be more costly than anticipated. For example, there is increasing concern about the high cost of assessment in the workplace - both the up-front costs of payments to awarding bodies and the 'hidden' costs (eg of the time of supervisors and trainees). In cases such as this the purity of intentions may have to be tempered by the availability of resources.

The need for stability

4.2.30

Above all, the strategic changes, from top-down to bottom-up national organisation, and from time-based and process-based provision to one based on outcomes, will take time to be fully implemented and exploited.

4.2.31

A period of stability without change, other than adjustments to make the system work better, is the most important priority for vocational education and training in the UK.

ANNEXES

Annex 1

List of acronyms and sets of initials

AB
Awarding Body

ACE
Action for Community Employment (Northern Ireland)

ALBSU
Adult Literacy and Basic Skills Unit

APL
Accreditation of Prior Learning

ATO
Accredited Training Organisation

BTEC
Business and Technician Education Council (until 1992)
Business and Technology Education Council (from 1992)

CBI
Confederation of British Industry

C&G
City and Guilds of London Institute

CGLI
City and Guilds of London Institute
(old abbreviation, but still sometimes used)

CNAA
Council for National Academic Awards

CPD
Continous Professional Develoment

CPVE
Certificate of Pre-vocational Education

DED
Department of Economic Development (Northern Ireland)

DENI
Department of Education for Northern Ireland

DES
Department of Education and Science (to July 1992)
DFE
Department for Education (from July 1992)

EAV
Examining and validating body

ED
Employment Department

ESF
European Social Fund

ET
Employment Training

FEU
Further Education Unit

GCE
General Certificate of Education

GCSE
General Certificate of Secondary Education

GNVQ
General National Vocational Qualification

gSVQ
General Scottish Vocational Qualification

GTC
Government Training Centre

HMI
Her Majesty's Inspector of Education

IT
Information Technology

ITB
Industrial Training Board

ITO
Industry Training Organisation

JTP
Job Training Programme (Northern Ireland)

LB
Lead Body

LCCI
London Chamber of Commerce and Industry

LEA
Local Education Authority

lec
Local enterprise company

MSC
Manpower Services Commission

NCET
National Council for Educational Technology

NCITO
National Council of Industry Training Organisations

NCVQ
National Council for Vocational Qualifications

NFER
National Council for Educational Research

NIFER
Northern Ireland Council for Educational Research

NSTO
Non-statutory Training Organisation

NVQ
National Vocational Qualification

ORF
Output Related Funding

PCFC
Polytechnics and Colleges Funding Council

PEI
Pitman Examinations Institute

PIC
Private Industry Council

PICKUP
Professional, Industrial and Commercial Updating

RSA
Royal Society of Arts

RTO
Recognised Training Organisation (Northern Ireland)

SCET
Scottish Council for Educational Technology

SCOTVEC
Scottish Vocational Education Council

SCRE
Scottish Council for Research in Education

SME
Small/Medium-Sized Enterprise

SOED
Scottish Office Education Department

SRB
Sectoral Representative Body (Northern Ireland)

SVQ
Scottish Vocational Qualification

SWAP
Scottish Wider Access Programme

TEC
Training and Enterprise Council

TUC
Trades Union Congress

TVEI
Technical and Vocational Education Initiative

UFC
Universities Funding Council

WO
Welsh Office

YT
Youth Training

YTP
Youth Training Programme (Northern Ireland)

YTS
Youth Training Scheme

Annex 2

Major organisations involved in providing or regulating vocational training

Confederation of British Industry (CBI)
Centre Point, 103 New Oxford Street, London WC1A 1DU.
Tel: 071 379 7400

Department for Education (DFE)
Sanctuary Buildings, Great Smith Street, London SW1P 3BT
Tel: 071 925 5000

Department of Education for Northern Ireland (DENI)
Rathgael House, Balloo Road, Bangor, Co Down BT19 2PR
Tel: 0247 466311

Department of Employment (ED)
Caxton House, Tothill Street, London SW1H 9NF.

Department of Employment (DE)
Training, Education and Enterprise Directorate, Moorfoot, Sheffield S1 4PQ.
Tel: 0742 753275

Further Education Staff College (now The Staff College)
Coombe Lodge, Blagdon, Bristol BS18 6RG.
Tel: 0761 62503

Further Education Unit (FEU)
Spring Gardens, Citadel Place, Tinworth Street, London SE11 5EH.
Tel: 071 962 1280. Fax: 071 962 1266

Highlands and Islands Enterprise (HIE)
Bridge House, 20 Bridge Street, Inverness IV1 1QR
Tel: 0463 234171

National Council for Vocational Qualifications (NCVQ)
222 Euston Road, London NW1 2BZ.
Tel: 071 387 9898

National Council of Industrial Training Organisations (NCITO)
5 George Lane, Royston Herts SG8 9AR.

Polytechnics and Colleges Funding Council (PCFC)
Metropolis House, 22 Percy Street, London W1P 9FF.
Tel: 071 637 1134

Professional, Industrial and Commercial Updating (PICKUP)
c/o Department of Education and Science
Sanctuary Buildings, Great Smith Street, London SW1P 3BT
Tel: 071 925 5000

Scottish Enterprise (SE)
120 Bothwell Street, Glasgow G2 7JP.
Tel: 041 248 2700

Scottish Further Education Unit (SFEU)
Jordanhill College, 76 Southbrae Drive, Glasgow G13 1PP.
Tel: 041 950 3149

Scottish Office Education Department (SOE)
New St Andrew's House, St James Centre, Edinburgh EH1 3SY
Tel: 031 556 8400

Scottish Office Industry Department (SOID)
New St. Andrews House, St. James Centre, Edinburgh EH1 3SY
Tel: 031 556 8400

Scottish Vocational Education Council (SCOTVEC)
Hanover House, 24 Douglas Street, Glasgow G2 7NG.

Trade Union Congress (TUC)
Congress House, Great Russell Street, London Wc1B 3LS
Tel: 071 636 4030

Universities Funding Council
PO Box 28, Cheltenham, Gloucestershire GL50 1HY.
Tel: Cheltenham 222444

Welsh Office
Cathays Park, Cardiff CF1 3NQ
Tel: 0222 825111

Annex 3

Some published sources on the UK vocational training system

1. The 1991 and 1992 White Papers

Department of Education and Science, Department of Employment, Welsh Office: Education and Training for the 21st Century Cm 1536, London: HMSO: May 1991. ISBN 0 10 115362 7

Scottish Office: Access and Opportunity: A Strategy for Education and Training. Cm 1530, Edinburgh: HMSO: May 1991. ISBN 0 10 1153023

Department of Education and Science, Scottish Office, Department of Education for Northern Ireland, Welsh Office: Higher Education: A New Framework. Cm 1541, London: HMSO: May 1991. ISBN 0 10115412 7

Department of Education for Northern Ireland: Further Education in Northern Ireland - The Road Ahead : June 1991.

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Annex 4

Brief glossary of terms

The following brief list of terms and explanations on how they have been used in this report, has been drawn up by the author. It makes no claim to be an authoritative terminological work. In this context we would refer the reader to CEDEFOP's on-going activities in the field of terminology and vocational training. Those interested in this work should contact Frau Linshöft-Stiller in CEDEFOP.

Access: Access, as used in the term *Access to Higher Education*, mainly involves bringing an individual to a standard which a higher education institution will accept for entry to a higher education course, providing an alternative to the traditional routes to HE (q.v.). It can also relate to demolishing or easing non-academic barriers, e.g. by designing higher education courses so that they can be taken by students with, say, family commitments.

Accreditation: In the sense used for National Vocational Qualifications, the formal act by which the National Council for Vocational Qualifications simultaneously recognises statements of competence, awarding bodies, and qualifications for inclusion within the NVQ Framework.

Accreditation of Prior Learning: The process of checking what an individual has done in the past, whether in formal education or training or work or life experience, in order to provide recognition of this in the form of a qualification, part qualification or accelerated training leading to a qualification.

Assessment: Several different meanings can be given to assessment, but in this monograph it has been used to cover the measurement of attainment or performance or the process of collecting evidence and making judgements as to whether an individual has met the criteria for an award or part of an award.

Awarding Body: An organisation which awards a qualification (in the English sense). This could be an organisation (eg City and Guilds or the Business and Technology Education Council) which prescribes syllabuses and assessements over a wide range of subject areas. It could be a professional body whose qualifications are related to grades of membership, or it could be a training organisation which awards certificates describing the competences achieved by an individual.

Competence: There are many different definitions of competence, but in this monograph the NCVQ definition has been adopted: the ability to perform in work roles or jobs to the standards required in employment.

Credit: Attainment in education or training which is short of a full qualification (q.v.) but counts towards one. See also 'Training credit'

Distance learning: see Open Learning

Further Education: Post-compulsory education which does not take place in a school (q.v.) but which is not higher education (q.v.). The new Further Education Funding Councils are concerned with providing funding to corporate institutions which provide Further Education. The types of institution eligible to receive such funding are defined by law.

Flexible learning: see Open Learning

Higher Education: Higher Education courses are 'those reaching standards above GCE A-level, SCE-H-grade and BTEC National Diploma or Certificate (or their equivalents)' (Source: *Education Statistics for the United Kingdom:* 1991). The same source states 'Entry to Higher Education depends mainly on gaining the appropriate entry qualification .....' and cites GCE A-level, BTEC National and Scottish H-grade as the main qualifications.

Higher education courses, which are below degree standard, include in the UK Dip. HE, BTEC and SCOTVEC Higher National Certificates and diplomas and some professional qualifications. Other professional qualifications are considered to be of degree or post-graduate level;

Module: Used in this monograph to mean a self-contained or separately identified part of a course or qualification. The term 'module' has been used for the generality. The term 'unit' has been used in the specific sense defined by the National Council for Vocational Qualifications: 'a primary sub-division of the competence required for the award of an NVQ, representing a basic aspect of competence having meaning in employment which may be recognised and certificated independently as a credit towards an award.'

Open learning: Open learning can be taken to mean any arrangement which opens up opportunities for people to learn, including opening institutions on days and at times when it is convenient for the learner, removing restrictive rules on entry to studies and on the process of studying, allowing students to start when they like and finish when they are ready (eg for examination), enabling study to take place at home. In this monograph this opening of opportunities is referred to as flexible learning, while open learning is confined to learning which includes a large measure of self-study, usually based on packages which may be in print or multi-media and may or may not be supported by tutorials. Distance learning refers to situations in which geography prevents teacher and learner being in contact.

Outcomes: A focus on the attainment of an individual. Where there is a fixed length course, the outcomes of different individuals at the end of the course are likely to be different. If there is a focus on the outcomes then the length of learning time to reach a stated outcome is likely to differ between individuals.

Output-related Funding: The principle, still under debate, of relating grants (eg from the government to TECs, from TECs to colleges and training centres) in part or in whole to the achievement of certain outcome targets, eg the numbers of NVQs obtained by students or trainees.

Profession: A high-level occupation which has standards, values and a code of conduct normally provided through membership of a professional body. Membership needs to be seen in terms of the key characteristics of professional occupations, identified by the Monopolies Commission in 1970, as:

a) they are required to be expert in a particular area of activity, for which an advanced and extended formation is necessary, and practice in which requires a high level of theoretical foundation;

b) they have custody of a clearly definable and valuable body of knowledge and understanding;

c) they accept responsibility and accountability for the decisions they make against recognised values and standards of conduct.

Qualification: The recognition, usually by the award of a certificate or diploma, that an individual has reached a predetermined standard.

In the UK,
- the preparation for a qualification
- the assessment of the standards reached by an individual
- the award of the qualification

are now seen as separate, both in logic and in fact. The same qualification may be awarded following different types of preparation (including the Accreditation of Prior Learning q.v.) and as a result of different types of assessment.

School: An educational institution, not in the further or higher education sector, which provides one or more of:

- primary education,
- full-time education suitable for pupils of compulsory school age,
- full-time education for those above compulsory school age and below the age of 19.

Training credit: A voucher representing an entitlement to training, normally expressed as a sum of money which can only be spent on training.

White Paper: An official government publication outlining an area of policy and intentions. These usually require legislation for their implementation.

Unit: See module.

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